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THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

THE EFFECTS OF UNIVERSITY AND UNIT SIZE
UPON INTRAMURAL PARTICIPATION

by



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A THESIS

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THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

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The undersigned certify that they have read, and recommend to the Faculty of Graduate Studies and Research for acceptance, a thesis entitled "The Effects of University and Unit Size upon Intramural Participation" submitted by Leslie Eleanor Dunning in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Arts.

Date

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of the study was to develop a conceptual scheme for the understanding of intramural sports participation. Records from the University of Alberta Intramural Program over the last ten years, with a concentration on the year 1970-1971, were used to obtain the data. A questionnaire to the other universities in Canada provided additional information concerning intramurals to support the Alberta data.

Results of the study showed that the criteria used for unit formation is the most important factor affecting intramural participation. It was found that small units of voluntary associations around common interests provide the atmosphere most conducive to participation. This method of unit formation was most able to combat the negative effects that the large university has on student participation.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

No man can reveal to you aught but that which already lies half asleep in the dawning of your knowledge.

The teacher who walks in the shadow of the temple, among his followers, gives not of his wisdom, but rather of his faith and his lovingness.

If he is indeed wise he does not bid you enter the house of his wisdom, but rather leads you to the threshold of your own mind.

- from The Prophet by Kahlil Gibran

My sincerest thanks go to Professor Harvey Scott, my chairman, Dr. Peter Lindsay, my advisor, and Professor Rex Beach, for their faith; to all my friends for their support: and to Joe for his lovingness--for all of these were my teachers.

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CHAPTER I

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Introduction

Importance of Intramurals

Intramural sports programs are an important part of the athletic programs of most universities across Canada. Many schools, even those with a bare minimum of facilities, are struggling to make a success of intramurals because of a strong belief in their value. Intramurals have been a valuable part of the university community as a whole, both in the past and the present, contributing to the recreation, enjoyment, and fitness of many university students. Today, however, intramurals take on an even greater significance.

Mallet (1960) feels that intramurals are especially important, since in most universities there are no longer any required physical education courses. This comes at a time when automation and the shorter work week have greatly expanded the amount of leisure time available to modern man, and the increase in disposable income has given him the potential to enjoy his leisure. Since sports and games are valuable leisure skills, intramurals have tried to fill the void that the loss of physical education courses has left. Through an intramural program, university students are provided with the facilities and the opportunity to improve their leisure time skills, and learn new ones. It is all part

of the growing trend toward education for leisure.

It is for these reasons that participation has always been the main aim of the intramural sports programs. Organizers want to involve all those who have the slightest desire to participate, and to use the available facilities to their maximum capacity.

However, many programs do not have the level of participation that they would like to see. Too many students who would like to participate, never become involved, and all too often those who are involved, do not enjoy the program to the fullest. Intramural sports programs are suffering from what has been termed in our society, the "drop-out problem."

Participation Problems in Larger Society and in Education

In society as a whole, one of the great problems facing man is how to keep people involved and participating. The problem arises because, in our machine age, man has a lot of time at his disposal, and does not have the knowledge to handle it. In many cases his education has given him the tools with which to work, but not with which to play. Therefore, the average working man is lost when he is out of his work situation. His dissatisfaction and boredom with life are a result of his inability to productively use his leisure time. The result is alienation, and a loss of faith in both society and himself. Many people then lose the desire and ability to participate, and therefore become spectators of life. Sociologists and social-psychologists are spending much of their time in studying this problem, and trying to

find solutions which will have people participating again.

The problem is evident throughout the whole educative system. There is, today, a far greater number of children who are attending school and university than there was a generation ago. But there are also a lot more who become part of the system yet never complete their schooling. This seems to be a contradiction, but with the huge increase in students entering schools, it is possible to have an increase in numbers dropping out, as well as an increase in those continuing on to higher education. The question is-- why cannot the school system keep children participating actively?

Watson provides statistics to demonstrate that the proportion of youth, aged 16-25, who were out of school and out of work in 1963 was greater than it was during the depths of the depression (Watson, 1963:2). Perhaps one of the reasons is that a look at the future provides no assurance of security. There are more people in school, but automation has provided fewer jobs than ever before for people coming out of the schools. The school system at the same time provides the student with a broad generalized education that does not prepare him for any particular job. Dentler and Warshauer (1965:8) stated that a high school education in 1960 no longer provided security for those receiving employment, while in 1972, the same may be said for some forms of a university education.

In other words, the high school and the university systems have not adjusted to the situation realistically.

Even though automation has led to a ". . . steady breakdown in the absorption of the young non-college graduate into the work force . . ." (Dentler and Warshauer, 1965:9), the education system keeps on preparing them for a work force that no longer exists. A system which is so inappropriate to the real-life situation is bound to alienate its members, and lose all participation.

Drop-out studies have shown that these people who choose to leave the school system have personal and social qualities such as; 1) they tend to reject the school and themselves, 2) they are insecure in their school status, 3) they are less respected by teachers because of academic inadequacy, 4) they do not see education as a means for a richer, fuller life, 5) they do not have adequate goals, and 6) their parents show little interest in their schooling (National Education Association, 1965:10).

Studies show that drop-outs have not been completely socialized, they have not taken on the same values, goals, and norms that the system wants them to have. Who is at fault--the system or the student? Perhaps it is time to look at the system that produces these drop-outs for a solution to the problem.

Fantini (1969) points to the problem with the example of the Puerto Rican and the Negro parents who boycotted the new centralized school which incorporated their community with other white communities in New York. Their children were forced by law to continue at school until aged sixteen, but

in a system whose values were completely alien to their own culture's. A school in their district and for their district would be more culturally suitable to the values and norms of these children, and could prepare them for much more realistic goals than those which would be forced on them in white schools--goals which in most cases were unattainable. It is no wonder that these children drop-out and become completely alienated from society; they have nothing to identify with it.

The problem is not isolated to multi-racial areas, but is common everywhere. The school system has limited flexibility in catering to the differences of individuals or interest groups. Thus, the identity crises and the alienation that are so common today, and condemned by multitudes of writers (Josephson, 1971; Riesman, 1955; Ruitenbeek, 1964; Klapp, 1969; and Keniston, 1965), exist.

There is however, another drop-out who does not participate in any activities, but who is still a member of the system. He too can cause problems for an intramural director. This "psychological drop-out" is a product of the same forces acting on the other drop-out, but for lack of an alternative plan of action, he stays in the system. His method of fighting back is apathy. He becomes what Etzioni (1968) calls, the "passive consumer" instead of the active participant.

Therefore, it is evident that educational researchers have dealt with the problem of participation and lack of involvement to a great extent also.

The Need for a Study of Intramurals

An intramural program is as much a social organization as is the educational system. It also seems to be faced with the same problems of maintaining and improving the involvement and participation of its members. Since an intramural program is a part of the university community as a whole, it is likely that alienation directed at the educative system will also affect the intramural program. Therefore, it may be that general solutions with respect to participation may apply to both organizations.

It has been stated here that research in the social-psychological area has been directed at the problems of participation and the drop-outs in other social organizations. The concepts that have been formulated, and the possible solutions they may have found should, therefore, be applied to these problems as they exist for intramural programmers. These intramural problems have not been studied in this way, yet findings from the research in other organizations may provide insights into the causes of lack of participation in our intramural programs.

Statement of the Problem

The purpose of the study was to develop a conceptual scheme for the understanding of intramural sports participation. This theoretical scheme was developed from a longitudinal case study of intramural sports records at the University of Alberta, with an in-depth study of the year 1970-1971. A brief study of other universities in Canada

was made in order that trends observed at Alberta could be compared with similar trends elsewhere. The relationships to be examined are: 1) the relationship between university size and percentage participation, 2) the relationship between unit size and the percentage participation in each unit, 3) the relationship between commitment to the unit and participation within the unit, and 4) the availability of social rewards and its relationship to participation.

Delimitations

The University of Alberta program was studied since it is a representative intramural program at a large university. A full-time director, and four assistants are in charge of the organization and have helped it gain the respect it holds on campus. According to Mr. Hugh Hoyles, the program director, the aim of the program is to maximize participation, including in this aim, the goals of enjoyment, friendship and variety of opportunity. Therefore the program has thirty-eight intramural units, and twenty-seven different sports activities to serve the needs of the students.

The program is a representative program also, since it has all of the problems associated with trying to involve a large university. It has units formed both along faculty lines and by voluntary interest groups. The program is set up in such a way that an individual can participate for any unit he wishes. This relatively recent innovation has resulted in a great number of interest groups and clubs

forming units alongside the older, traditional faculty units. However, a person may only participate for one unit at a time, so that players are not "bought and sold" by the units. If an individual wishes to change units permanently, he can apply to an Administrative Board (of three members) who make the decision. Since the program operates this way, the two types of unit formation can be studied.

As with all other intramural programs, the University of Alberta program is limited by factors difficult to control such as facilities, budgets, officials, and the dedication of unit managers.

This study of intramurals concentrated on the men's program because it has a permanent director (unlike the women's program) who is solely responsible for development and organization, and results can be applied to intramural sports programs in general. The men's program also has more accurate and extensive records.

The intramural year 1970-71 at the University of Alberta was chosen since it was a representative year for intramurals. The program had the same increase in participants relative to increased university enrolment as had been the case in previous years. It is also important to note that no noticeable changes occurred in the program that year, raquetball being the only new sport added to the list of available activities. Records for the year 1970-71 were complete and available, and were recent enough that generalizations to the present and future could be more meaningful.

The factors of university size, unit size, commitment and social rewards were chosen when discussing participation rates since they are believed, after extensive reading, to be the most important factors contributing to intramural participation.

Limitations

In the collection of the data, it was found that in some cases, the intramural participation record sheets for the individual participants had: 1) names misspelled, 2) no first name, 3) people with the same name, or 4) names did not exist in University files. In cases such as these, the collection of information through the Student Directory was not possible. The data therefore does not include this 2% of the participants.

The percentages included in the study are based on the assumption that there is a potential participation of 100% of males enrolled at the University of Alberta.

The study deals with unit percentage participation for faculty units only. The voluntary units have no formal limitation in numbers, and therefore cannot be studied by percentage participation. Those participants who had double allegiances were considered first as faculty members who participated, and second as faculty members participating outside the faculty.

Definition of Terms

Participation rate - Participation rate means the

percentage participation, and is used in reference to the university as a whole, and to the individual units. The 100% participation rate would exist if all males at the university participated in the intramural program.

Participant - A participant is an individual who participated in the intramural program once. If the intramural office awarded an individual any participation points, that person was considered a participant.

Unit - An intramural unit is any group that applied to the Intramural Council and was granted unit status. It may be a group organized by faculty (Dentistry, Arts and Science), or it can be a church group (Student Christian Movement, Latter Day Saints), a fraternity (Phi Gamma Delta, Kappa Sigma), or any group with a common bond, who joined together to participate in intramurals (Chinese Students, Apathy Club).

Community - (Geographical) - A geographical community is an arbitrarily set physical boundary that includes the members of the group.

Community - (Sense of Community or Community of Interest) - This is the sense of belonging, personal interaction, and interdependence with those with whom a unique culture is shared. (This culture includes the values, norms, and goals unique to the group).

Alienation - Alienation is a psychological state of the mind, an individual feeling, of estrangement and unfriendliness toward society and the culture it carries, as

well as towards the self.

Commitment - Commitment is the willingness of social actors to give their energy and loyalty to social systems; the attachment of personality systems to social relations which are seen as self-expressive.

Social Reward Structure - Social Reward Structure is the system by which social rewards are allocated. Social rewards include such things as status, friendship, popularity, and support for one's values and self-concepts.

CHAPTER II

ANALYSIS OF DATA AND FINDINGS

The University of Alberta Intramural Program

The information for the case study of the University of Alberta Intramural Sports Program was obtained from the Intramural records of all participants in the program in the year 1970-1971. From these records, the names of the participants were taken and then found in the 1970-1971 Student Directory. This Directory provided the faculty registration, and the year in university of each participant. In order to determine the total male enrolment in each of the faculties, the Statistics for the Academic Year 1970-1971 was used.

An overview of participation in the whole program by all units is provided in Table 1. It is evident from these results that in most cases, units did not participate in all of the activities that the program offered. However, in a few cases, participation covered an extremely high number of sports. For example, the Dentistry unit participated in every activity, and was the only unit to do so. Medicine, Law, and Physical Education units participated in all activities but one, Medicine missing archery, whereas Law and Physical Education missed the skate races. At the other extreme, the Student Christian Movement (S.C.M.) entered only one activity.

In order to determine the total participation of the members of each faculty, it was necessary to count a participant

TABLE 1

UNIT PARTICIPATION IN EACH SPORT

	AGRICULTURE	APATHY CLUB	ARTS & SCIENCE	CHINESE STUDENTS	COMMERCE	DELTA KAPPA EPSILON	DELTA SIGMA PHI	DELTA UPSILON	DENTISTRY	EDUCATION	ENGINEERING	GEOLOGY	KAPPA SIGMA	LAMBDA CHI ALPHA	LATTER DAY SAINTS	LAW	MACKENZIE	M.B.A.	MEDICINE	PHARMACY	PHI DELTA THETA	PHI GAMMA DELTA	PHI KAPPA PI	PHYSICAL EDUCATION	RECREATION	RESIDENCE (LOWER)	RESIDENCE (UPPER)	RUGBY CLUB	S.C.M.	SIGMA ALPHA MU	ST. JOHN'S	ST. JOSEPH'S	ST. STEPHEN'S	THETA CHI	ZETA PSI	FACULTY	
ARCHERY	2	2	-	-	-	11	-	-	50	-	11	7	6	12	8	4	10	-	-	-	2	10	-	5	21	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	36	7	-	-	-
BADMINTON	-	5	10	14	-	6	-	2	33	1	5	-	13	7	1	11	26	-	-	7	-	9	-	1	-	9	6	-	-	-	-	4	6	8	-	-	
BASKETBALL	18	27	33	5	9	20	9	17	42	12	51	9	27	25	24	39	52	7	28	10	40	-	17	61	9	32	38	11	-	9	16	32	-	18	14	13	
FREETHROW	-	12	1	1	-	5	1	5	16	-	20	10	18	-	14	12	14	-	-	-	1	7	-	2	14	-	4	3	1	-	3	6	23	-	1	1	-
3-on 3	8	-	10	-	3	7	7	4	12	-	8	-	20	9	8	16	23	-	18	-	4	-	9	6	5	11	3	5	-	-	-	9	4	15	5	-	
BOWLING	-	9	5	15	5	20	8	-	19	1	7	-	17	3	2	16	14	-	2	-	1	-	12	1	-	15	-	-	-	-	-	7	12	-	5	-	
CROSS-COUNTRY	8	7	10	4	-	3	-	2	16	2	2	8	-	-	6	19	22	-	16	3	3	-	2	14	1	8	7	4	-	4	2	21	1	1	9	-	
CURLING	12	9	7	-	18	-	9	8	21	3	24	18	24	2	6	27	28	-	21	7	4	-	6	14	12	24	19	-	-	9	14	21	18	10	5	-	
CYCLE DRAG	7	2	2	8	-	11	9	-	20	-	10	-	10	2	11	9	2	-	9	7	9	9	10	9	8	1	-	-	-	-	-	10	-	-	-	-	
RAQUETBALL	-	5	6	-	-	2	-	1	7	2	7	2	5	2	-	12	3	6	1	-	7	-	-	29	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1
FLAG FOOTBALL	45	34	141	-	32	17	30	85	46	113	32	52	30	21	67	89	28	95	17	47	15	19	73	27	66	103	103	4	13	21	37	93	24	32	16	18	
GOLF	3	-	10	-	4	6	-	7	22	5	15	6	10	5	3	15	4	5	13	2	8	-	-	12	4	4	8	-	-	-	1	9	-	5	2	-	
HANDBALL	-	1	3	1	1	2	1	2	20	2	2	-	1	1	-	-	7	-	-	4	-	-	-	-	5	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	-	-	3	-	
HOCKEY	17	33	68	-	43	65	27	43	98	68	139	27	61	48	19	77	109	16	63	18	52	18	14	85	46	76	98	30	-	20	16	80	13	31	16	-	
INDOOR SOCCER	-	12	12	18	10	27	7	18	19	16	12	-	17	14	4	16	-	13	-	9	16	5	11	11	17	-	11	17	-	12	-	17	15	17	-	-	
SKATE RACES	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1	7	-	-	-	5	-	-	6	-	-	3	-	8	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	5	-	-	-	-	
X-C SKIING	-	-	-	-	-	4	-	-	9	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	4	-	-	-	-	4	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	4	-	-	9	-	
SLALOM SKIING	-	-	-	-	-	2	-	-	12	-	5	6	9	1	-	5	2	-	8	-	10	4	-	5	-	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	8	1	-	-	
SNOOKER	-	7	5	10	2	6	-	-	7	1	10	7	11	3	-	10	9	-	3	-	4	-	-	2	-	4	5	-	-	-	5	2	9	1	4	-	
SQUASH	1	-	7	-	3	3	-	-	16	1	3	5	2	3	5	19	12	3	2	9	1	-	-	11	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	-	-	1	5	-
SWIMMING	-	-	1	-	1	13	-	1	11	-	1	4	13	2	5	10	6	-	17	-	16	7	-	7	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	8	-	-	-	6	
TABLE TENNIS	-	4	2	18	-	-	-	1	16	-	2	2	4	1	-	10	6	-	1	-	1	-	-	1	-	2	3	-	-	-	-	4	-	3	-	-	-
TENNIS	-	-	21	3	-	2	-	1	16	3	4	2	5	-	2	5	5	1	3	-	-	-	-	14	1	-	5	-	-	-	-	2	2	-	-	-	-
TRACK & FIELD	-	-	1	6	-	5	2	3	8	-	1	6	9	1	3	21	1	1	1	8	-	-	-	16	1	-	2	-	-	-	1	-	10	-	2	3	-
VOLLEYBALL	-	33	30	31	8	21	-	22	80	6	62	21	37	14	10	39	49	11	33	10	14	-	-	40	10	24	68	-	-	10	9	39	12	18	10	7	
WATERPOLO	-	9	11	-	-	13	-	9	15	-	11	12	11	10	5	15	14	-	9	8	10	11	-	10	6	-	6	10	-	-	-	10	-	6	2	-	
WRESTLING	-	-	2	-	-	3	-	2	6	-	3	1	4	-	-	6	7	-	3	-	-	-	-	2	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

who was enrolled in a particular faculty, as a faculty participant, whether he was playing for the faculty unit or not. This complication in analysing the data arises as a result of the Intramural policy of allowing anyone to participate for any unit. The results, nonetheless, show the total faculty participation, as seen in Table 2. A test of significance found that all percentages were statistically different to the .01 level of confidence. The general trend of the results shows the larger faculties having, in general, a smaller percentage participation, while the smaller faculties have a somewhat larger percentage participation.

TABLE 2

TOTAL PERCENTAGE PARTICIPATION OF EACH FACULTY

Faculty	Total Registration	Total Percentage Participation
Pharmacy	122	45.1
Dentistry	192	94.1
Law	328	52.7
Physical Education	365	65.5
Agriculture	376	32.9
Medicine	492	35
Commerce	1055	33
Engineering	1367	32.9
Education	1573	23.8
Arts and Science	3706	30.3

These results are represented graphically in Figure 1.

Table 3 shows the difference in percentage between those faculty members participating within their faculty's

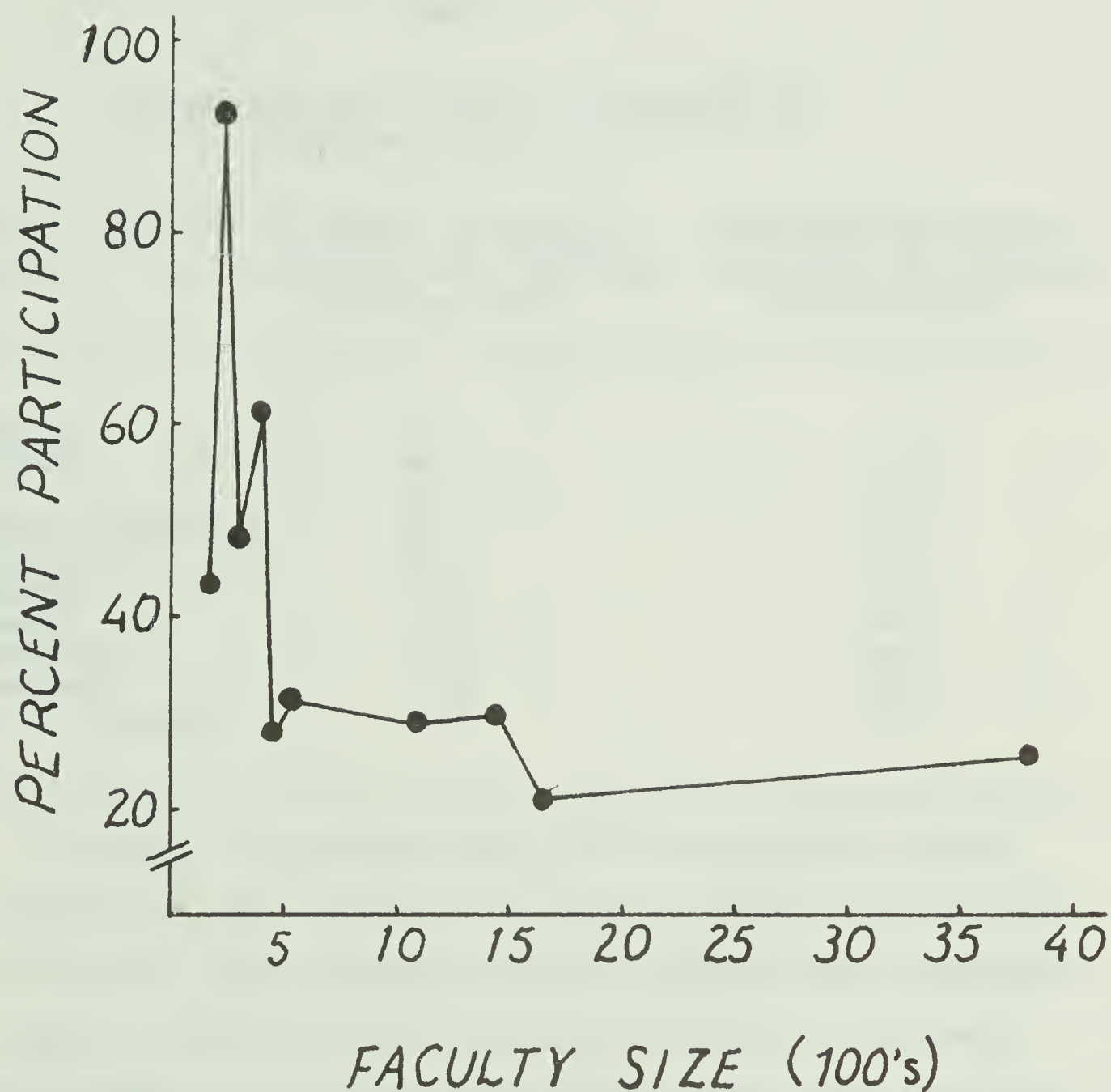


FIGURE 1 THE EFFECTS OF FACULTY SIZE ON
PERCENTAGE PARTICIPATION AT
THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA
1970-1971

intramural unit, and those participating outside the faculty unit for a unit of their choice. These results show that, without exception, the smaller faculties have a greater percentage of their faculty members participating for their faculty unit than for other units.

TABLE 3

PARTICIPATION WITHIN AND OUTSIDE OF
FACULTY UNITS 1970-71

Faculty	Percent of Members Participating for the Faculty Unit	Percent of Members Participating Outside Faculty Unit
Pharmacy	30.4	14.7
Dentistry	90	4.1
Law	46.6	6.1
Physical Education	34.8	30.7
Agriculture	18.3	14.6
Medicine	31.5	3.3
Commerce	6.9	26.1
Engineering	16.4	16.5
Education	5.1	18.7
Arts and Science	5.1	25.2

In order to determine the total percentage of males participating in the intramural program in other years as well as in 1970-1971, past Intramural Annual Reports were consulted. These reports, available over the last ten years, provided the total number of different male participants, and the total university male enrolment. The number of units, the number of sports activities available, and special factors, were included in the results. These results are found in Table 4.

TABLE 4

INTRAMURAL PARTICIPATION
1962-1972

Year	Number of Participants	Males in University	Percent Participation	Number of Units	Number of Sports
1962-3	1701	5,415	31.4	25	19
1963-4	1617	5,458	29.6	22	20 *
1964-5	2086	6,270	33.3	26	21
1965-6	2038	6,650	30.6	29	22 °
1966-7			figures not available		
1967-8	3133	8,185	38.3	31	27 !
1968-9	3425	9,524	35.96	32	27
1969-70	3,443	10,754	32.01	35	27
1970-1	3557	11,355	31.33	37	28
1971-2	3482	11,386	30.58	38	29

* Problems with unit managers

° Problems with budget

! Appointment of a Full-time Director

It appears that participation was erratic in the low thirty percent range between 1962 and 1966. Unfortunately, records for 1966-7 are not available since no record of participations were kept in that year. From 1967 to 1972, the percentage has decreased every year. These results are represented graphically in Figure 2.

Table 5 represents the figures for the growth in number of participants in the three representative large and three small units over the last ten years. The figures do not represent percentages, but are included to show the trends of growth in the units. Of special note are the figures since 1967 when a full-time intramural director was instituted. It appears that since 1967, large units have remained relatively constant in size, while the smaller units have expanded manyfold. However, Arts and Science had a large increase in participants between 1969-70 and 1970-71. Figure 3 and Figure 4 represent graphically these trends in growth of the units.

Table 6 represents a breakdown of the number of participants in each year of each unit. The breakdown allows the study of the individual units to find, for example, from what year they are drawing their participants, and shows also the registered year of those who participated outside the faculty unit in another unit. The figures show that the greatest number of participants come from first year, yet when these figures are taken as a percentage of the total male enrolment in the university for that year, the results

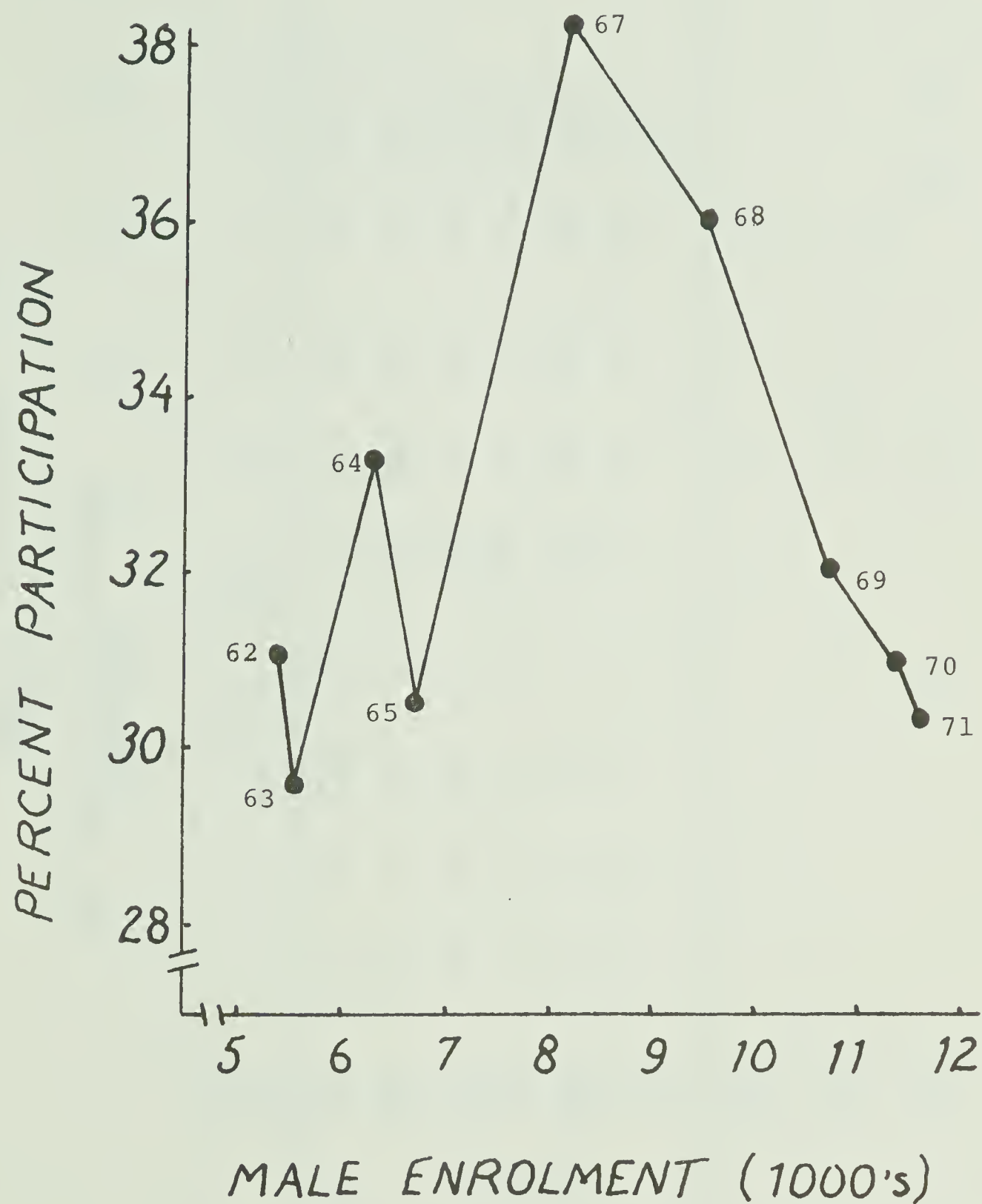


FIGURE 2 UNIVERSITY MALE ENROLMENT AND
PERCENTAGE PARTICIPATION 1962-
1972

TABLE 5

UNIT PARTICIPATION FIGURES
1962-1972

Unit	Years										
	62-3	63-4	64-5	65-6	66-7	67-8	68-9	69-70	70-1	71-2	
Arts and Science	80	121	117	108	-	189	175	189	284	306	
Education	175	160	173	123	-	119	140	131	113	102	
Engineering	101	82	158	143	-	263	240	237	255	272	
Law	32	33	31	42	-	57	65	129	174	203	
Dentistry	103	78	70	82	-	93	140	180	186	165	
Medicine	60	76	107	69	-	134	171	171	179	150	

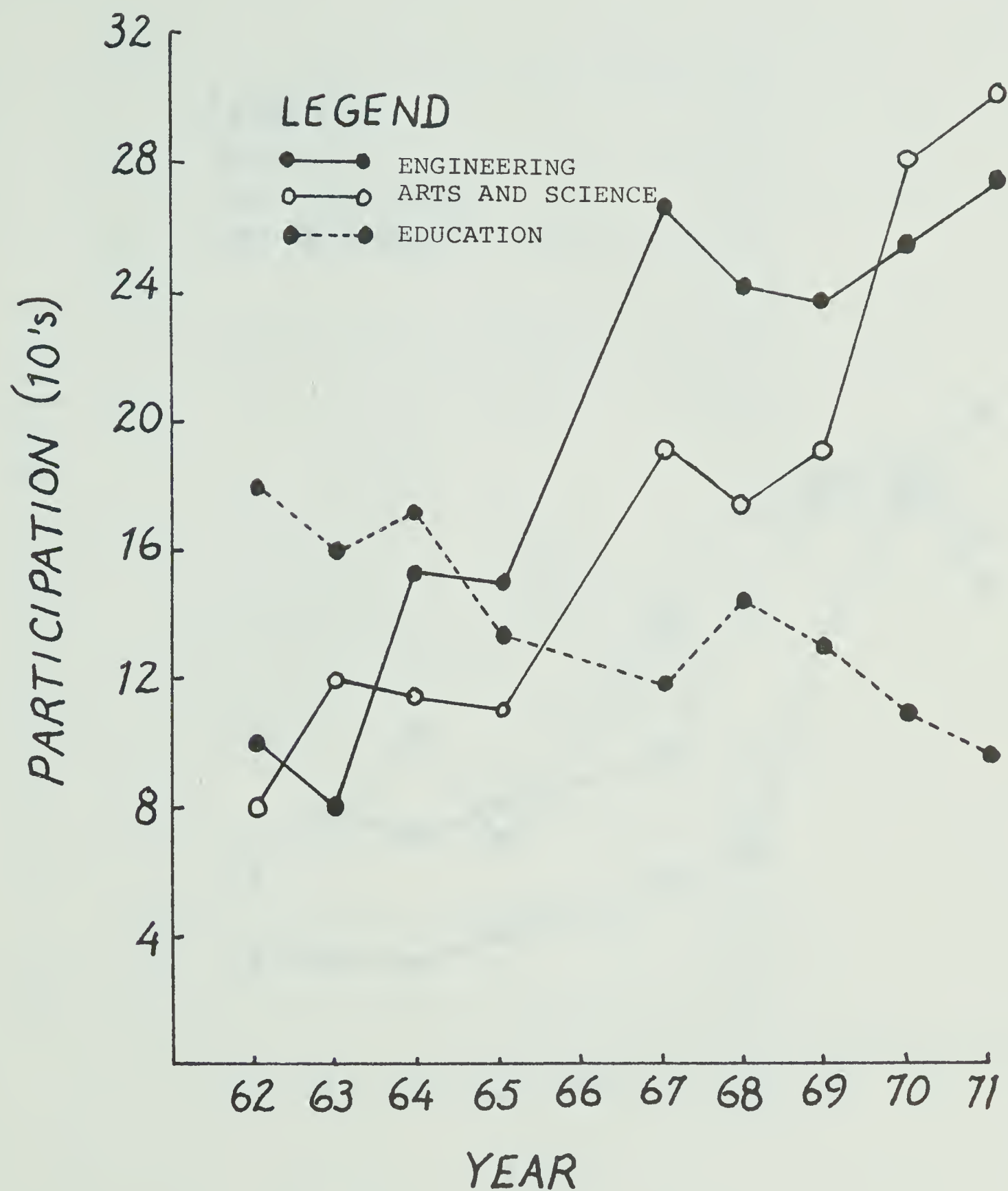


FIGURE 3 UNIT PARTICIPATION 1962-1972
FOR ENGINEERING, ARTS AND
SCIENCE AND EDUCATION

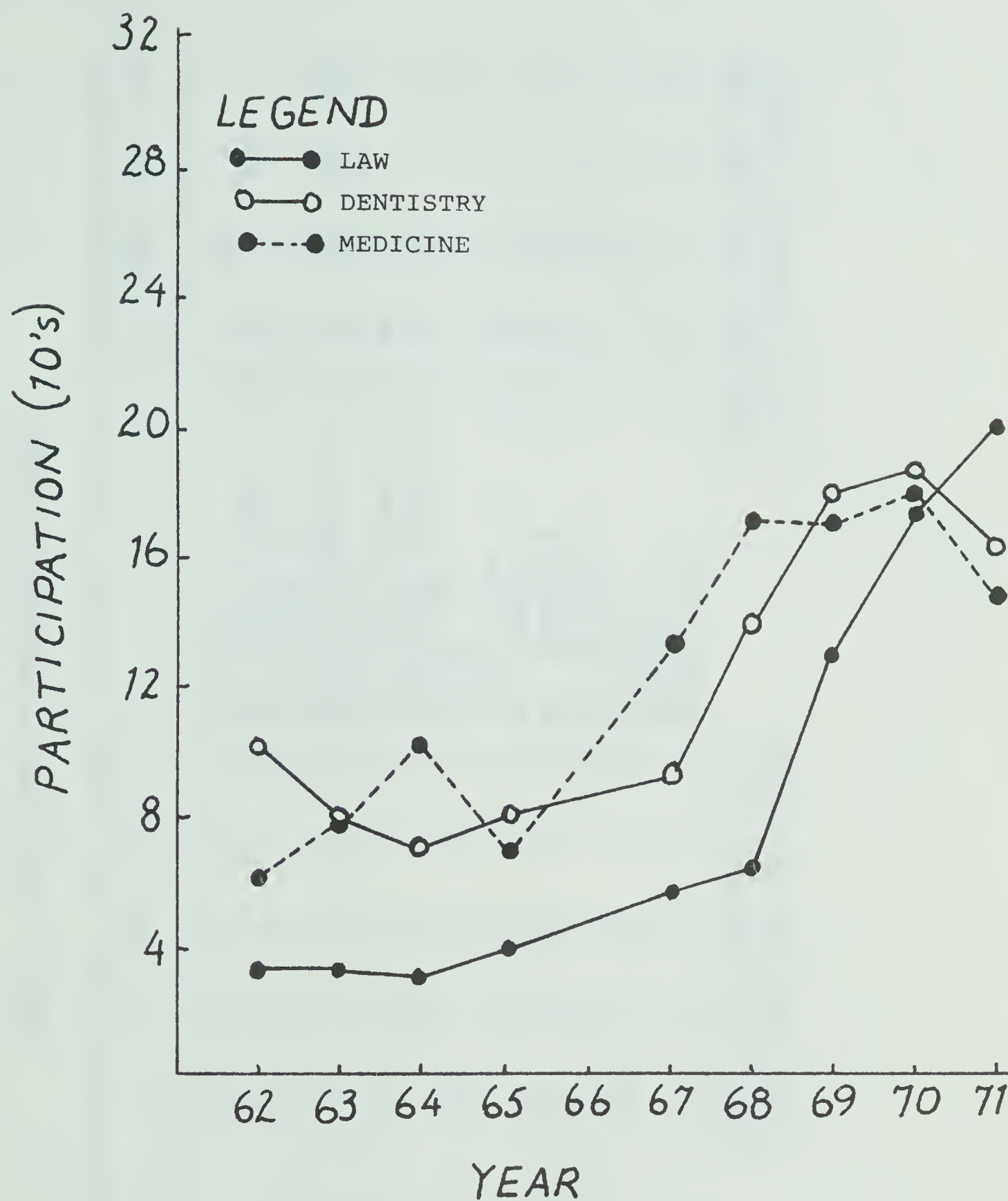


FIGURE 4 UNIT PARTICIPATION 1962-1972
FOR MEDICINE, DENTISTRY
AND LAW

TABLE 6
YEAR IN UNIVERSITY OF EACH PARTICIPANT

UNIT	I	II	III	IV	GS	I	II	III	IV	GS
Agriculture	11	13	15	27	3	7	5	12	9	3
Apathy Club	15	7	29	10	3	37	25	11	10	-
Arts & Science	67	55	59	26	46	2	11	6	6	1
Chinese Students	40	17	10	7	17	6	14	4	7	4
Commerce	14	17	37	19	-	72	21	55	45	36
Delta Kappa Epsilon	21	32	37	6	10	11	13	16	11	10
Delta Sigma Phi	8	15	16	11	-	72	48	24	-	-
Delta Upsilon	9	20	18	4	4	101	48	10	7	4
Dentistry	36	58	45	24	4	8	7	12	1	22
Education	23	17	38	27	3	2	2	6	1	2
Geology	7	7	27	7	11	10	14	4	3	-
Kappa Sigma	24	60	22	8	1	17	12	10	6	2
Lambda Chi Alpha	18	29	18	5	3	49	37	36	7	5
Latter Day Saints	21	11	4	2	2	15	22	14	3	7
Law	47	49	71	-	8	17	8	21	10	3
Mackenzie	89	67	24	9	4	5	9	10	6	1
M.B.A.	-	-	-	-	40	-	-	-	-	30
Medicine	46	62	38	24	-	22	48	75	98	16
	496	536	508	216	159	453	344	326	230	146

are somewhat different. Table 7 shows these results.

These figures show that the greatest percentage participation is in third year, gradually increasing from first year to that point. Fourth year students participate well, but less than those in third year. The participation percentage for graduate studies is the lowest.

Another indication of participation within a unit is the average number of activities in which each of the participants played. This number was found by dividing the total number of different participants into the total number of participants in all activities. Table 8 represents this data. Dentistry once again has the highest average number of activities per person, with 4.2, while S.C.M. has the lowest, 1.0. The largest faculty units, Arts and Science, and Education, have 1.6 and 1.5 respectively, while the other smaller faculties, Pharmacy and Law, have 2.3 and 2.8 activities per participant respectively.

The total number of participants in each sport activity are represented in Table 9. The determination of these figures can attest to the popularity of each of the sport activities, and point to areas which are not well attended. It is seen that in all cases, the number of participants in individual sports is less than in any team sport. Flag football has the highest number of participants, with hockey running a very close second, having 1685 and 1631 participants respectively. The skate races and cross-country skiing have the least number of participants,

TABLE 7

PERCENTAGE PARTICIPATION BY YEAR
IN UNIVERSITY

	I	II	III	Years IV	GS
Number of Participants	949	880	834	447	305
Total Enrolment	3335	2702	2305	1303	1707
Percentage Participation	28.46	32.57	36.18	34.31	17.87

TABLE 8

AVERAGE NUMBER OF ACTIVITIES PER PARTICIPANT

UNIT	NUMBER OF ACTIVITIES PER PERSON
AGRICULTURE	1.8
APATHY CLUB	3.3
ARTS & SCIENCE	1.6
CHINESE STUDENTS	1.5
COMMERCE	1.6
DELTA KAPPA EPSILON	2.9
DELTA SIGMA PHI	2.0
DELTA UPSILON	3.0
DENTISTRY	4.2
EDUCATION	1.5
ENGINEERING	2.1
GEOLOGY	2.9
KAPPA SIGMA	3.4
LAMBDA CHI ALPHA	2.6
LATTER DAY SAINTS	3.7
LAW	2.8
MACKENZIE	2.7
M.B.A.	1.9
MEDICINE	2.3
PHARMACY	2.3
PHI DELTA THETA	3.5
PHI GAMMA DELTA	2.5
PHI KAPPA PI	3.0
PHYSICAL EDUCATION	2.1
RECREATION	2.2
RESIDENCE (LOWER)	2.0
RESIDENCE (UPPER)	2.3
RUGBY CLUB	1.9
S.C.M.	1.0
SIGMA ALPHA MU	3.1
ST. JOHN'S	2.3
ST. JOSEPH'S	3.3
ST. STEPHEN'S	2.3
THETA CHI	2.8
ZETA PSI	2.7
FACULTY	2.5

TABLE 9

NUMBER OF PARTICIPANTS PER SPORT

Sport	Number of Participants
<u>Individual</u>	
Cross-Country Run	205
Archery	204
Basketball Free Throw	193
Bowling	196
Badminton	188
Golf	188
Cycle Drag	175
Swimming	144
Snooker	127
Track and Field	123
Raquetball	109
Tennis	98
Squash	83
Slalom Skiing	80
Table Tennis	79
Handball	62
Wrestling	44
Skate Races	35
Cross-Country Skiing	34
<u>Team</u>	
Flag Football	1685
Hockey	1631
Volleyball	778
Basketball	774
Curling	400
Soccer	373
3 on 3 Basketball	229
Waterpolo	223

with 35 and 34 participants respectively.

The winners of activities are listed in Table 10. These include team and individual sports. In individual sports the whole unit of the winning participant was credited with a win. Dentistry has obviously dominated the activities in 1970-1971, with nine activities won, and Law comes close behind winning five of the twenty-eight activities.

Intramural Programs at Other Canadian Universities

A questionnaire was sent to thirty-four universities across Canada, which, according to the Blue Book of College Athletics 1970 had intramural sports programs. The questionnaires requested information concerning: 1) the basis on which their intramural units were formed, 2) how the membership in these units was decided, 3) the percentage participation of units (if available), and 4) the number of participants in the program and the total male enrolment at their university over the last ten years. The number of returns to the request was fairly high (72%), but unfortunately, in many instances the available information was scanty. The reasons are many, including new programs, poor programs, no records of past years, and statistics with regards to participation not being kept or taken. However, from the data that was returned complete, many interesting phenomena can be seen, but this information may be helpful in suggesting trends only. There are several reasons for the use of some caution in making strong generalizations from this comparative data. Several uncontrolled variables

TABLE 10

WINNERS OF ACTIVITIES

UNIT	NUMBER OF WINS
DENTISTRY	9
LAW	5
MEDICINE	3
PHYSICAL EDUCATION	3
CHINESE STUDENTS	2
DELTA KAPPA EPSILON	2
ST. JOSEPH'S	1
FACULTY	1
PHI DELTA THETA	1
ARTS & SCIENCE	1

may affect participation in these other Canadian universities, including such factors as problems with facilities, a poor tradition of intramurals at the university, no budget allowances, or no full-time director. These factors, as seen by the University of Alberta figures, can be extremely important in determining the levels of participation achieved, and interest cultivated in the program. Given this word of limitation, the following information represents reasonably reliable data regarding some of the other intramural programs across Canada, and adds useful comparative insights to the Alberta analysis.

McGill University, University of Toronto, University of Manitoba, and University of Western Ontario, are the larger universities that provided usable information. Percentage participation at the present time is, in all cases, in the thirty percent range or lower. Generally, there has been a decrease in participation as the universities have grown.

Specifically, the University of Toronto has experienced a steady drop in percentage participation since 1951, from 40% to its present 1972 figure of 19%. Intramural units, in this case, are based on faculties, schools, and residences. Participation in these units is much higher in the smaller professional or religious schools (Wycliffe - 100%, Knox - 100%, Business - 100%, Forestry - 42%, Physical Education - 100%), than in larger traditional residence schools where participation is low.

McGill University has a relatively low participation

rate, but it is still increasing, which stands out against the decrease in other larger universities. It has grown from 18% in 1962 to 27% in 1972. Yet within the system, the units formed from the smaller professional schools have the highest percentage participation: Medicine - 30%, Dentistry - 35%, Architecture - 50%. The larger Arts and the Science units have 5% and 10% respectively.

The University of Manitoba has found a steady decrease in its program's participation rates since 1963. Units are based on schools, colleges, faculties, residences, and fraternities, with a few independent units. Once again, the professional school units, such as Physical Education (100%), Pharmacy (100%), Agriculture (71%), Dentistry (59%), and Medicine (51%) have the highest participation rates. Arts and Science units have 32% and 35% respectively.

At the University of Western Ontario, Intramural participation rates are very low. In 1970-1971, when the full-time intramural director took over the program, participation rose from 17% to 20%, but the trend is downward once again in 1972, with 19% participation. Units are based on faculty leagues, residence leagues, and some open leagues.

Among the smaller universities, participation rates are generally higher than in the larger universities. The trend is that participation rates are still increasing at the present time. Many of these universities have units determined by residence and faculties, but this still comprises a relatively small group. It appears that there

is a trend toward "interested groups" as the basis for units, rather than faculties.

St. Francis Xavier, with its 1200 male students, has twenty units making an average unit of sixty people. These units are based on residences, and the intramural program in 1971-1972 had 75% participation.

Université de Sherbrooke, averaging 250 participants per unit, has an increasing participation rate which reached 68.7% in 1972. The units are based entirely upon faculties. The University of Montreal has increased its participation to 38%, double its 1969-70 figures. This intramural program is based entirely "upon interested groups," but the exact date of the inception of this program is not known.

McMaster University has a high participation rate. From 1966 to 1969, the intramural units were based on faculty groups. Participation during this period decreased from 38% to 30%. From 1969 to 1972, "interested groups" have formed the basis of units, and during this period, participation jumped to 52% immediately, and has increased to 60% in 1972.

The intramural program at the University of Windsor has experienced a sharp decrease in participation from 33% to 11% over the last five years. Again, participation was highest in Physical Education, Engineering and Law units, while the Arts and Science units had the lowest. As a result of the decreasing participation, the Intramural Director has decided to change to the system of "interested groups" in the 1972-1973 season.

Participation rates in intramurals at Lakehead University have remained constant at the 40% level over the last four years. The units are based along faculty lines, and average 200 members per unit. Physical Education, Forestry, and Business units have the highest rates, at 70%, 50% and 50% respectively. The Arts and Science, and Education units have rates of 30%, 20% and 10% respectively.

Memorial University of Newfoundland claims a high rate of participation with 86% in 1970-71, and 76% in 1971-72. This program, with its units based on faculties and residences, has increased steadily over the last six years.

Figure 5 and Figure 6 represent participation at the University of Toronto, and at McMaster University.

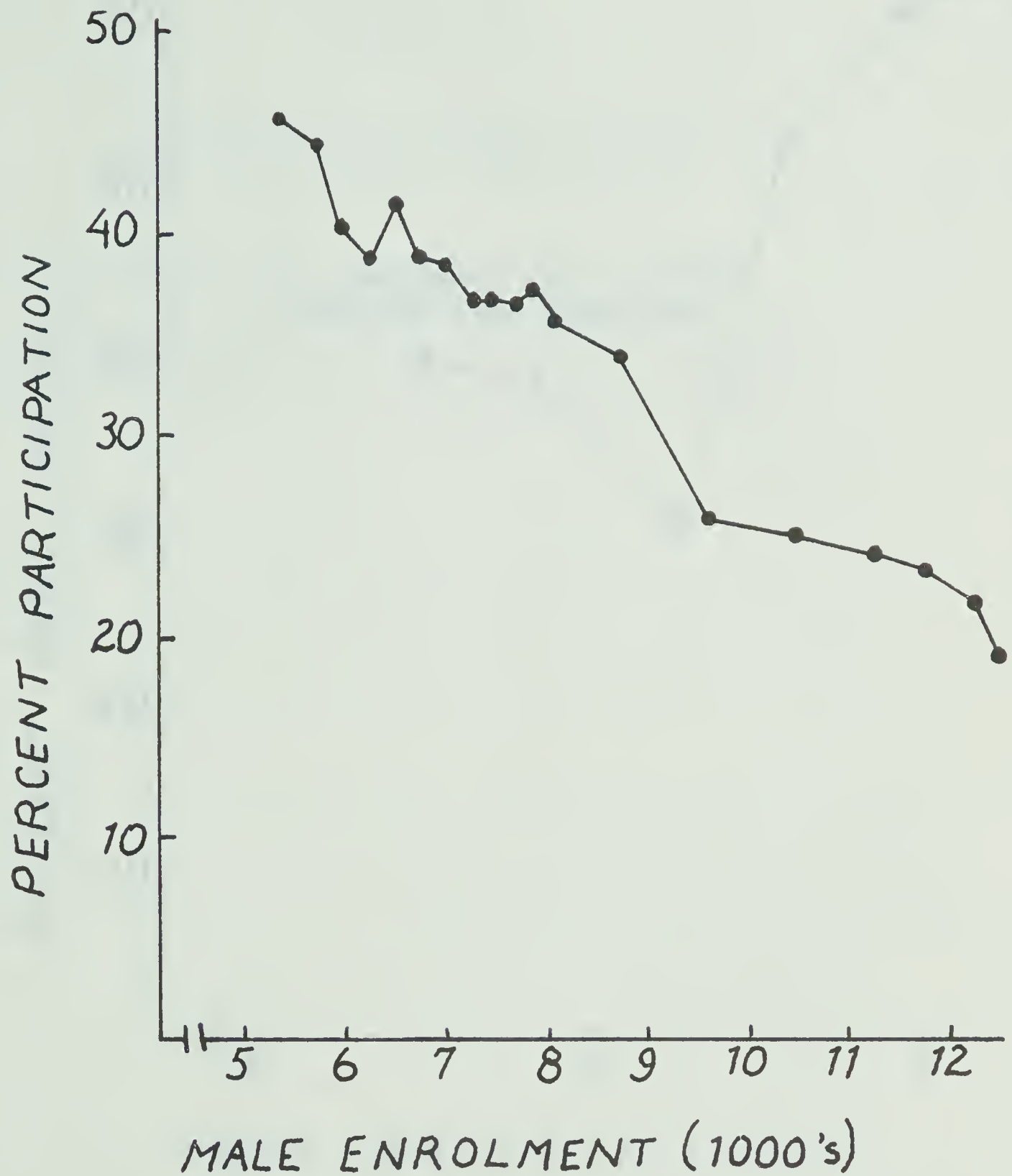


FIGURE 5 INTRAMURAL PARTICIPATION AT THE
UNIVERSITY OF TORONTO 1953-1971

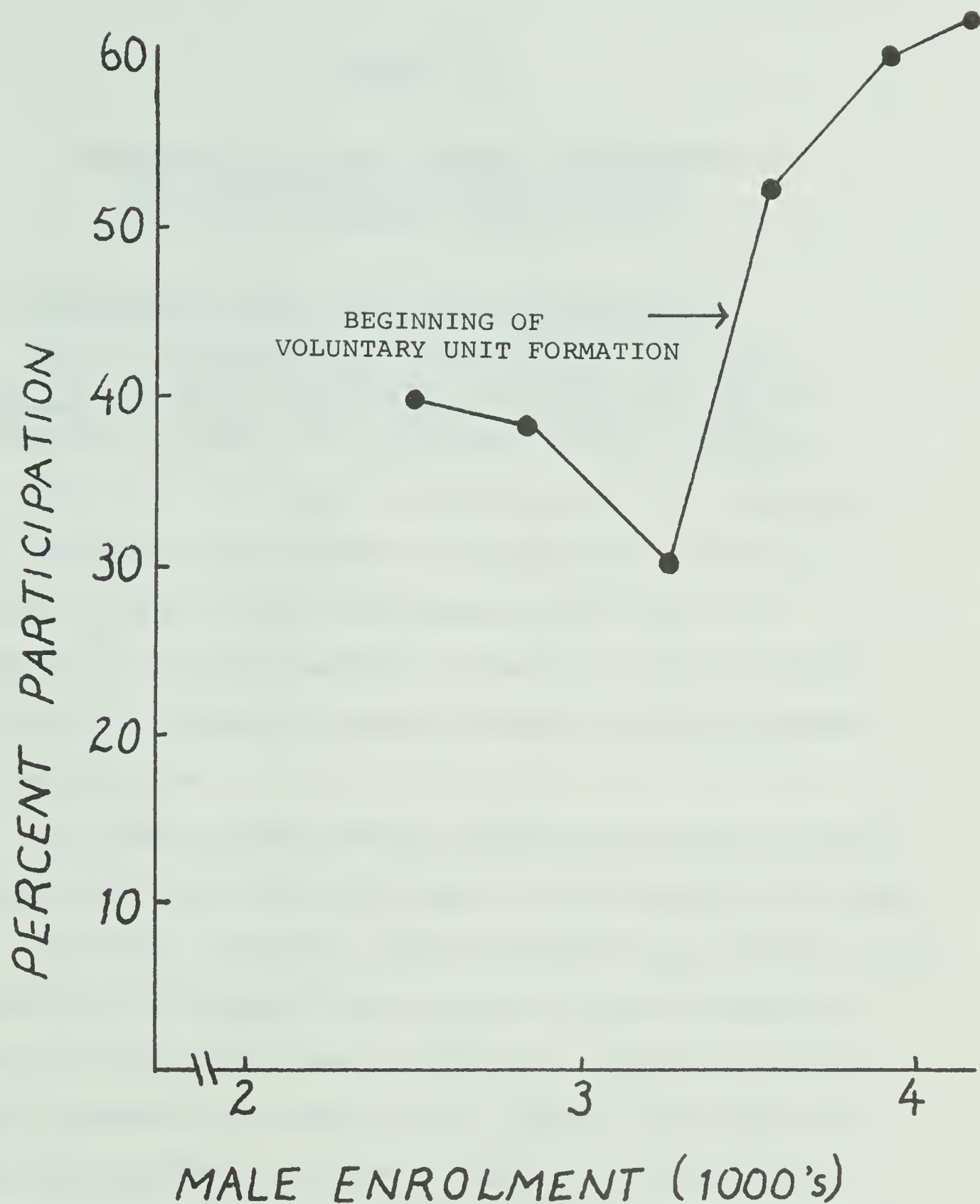


FIGURE 6 INTRAMURAL PARTICIPATION AT
MCMASTER UNIVERSITY 1966-1972

CHAPTER III

UNIVERSITY SIZE AND STUDENT INVOLVEMENT: THE RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN COLLEGE SIZE AND INTRAMURAL PARTICIPATION

Social Organization Size and Human Participation

When a territorially defined group, like the village, is a true functional group for all of its members and when it manifests a powerful primary dimension, we call it a community (Greer, 1969:63).

The size of a social organization is an important factor in determining whether the organization can be a community. Results from the present study show that university size affects community feelings, and therefore has significant effects on participation in the intramural sports program.

Much research and theory has been developed relating organizational size and involvement or participation in other areas. From this research, organizational size has been found to be one of the factors that affects not only community feeling, but also the sense of identity, the norms and the values of members, and this in turn affects the extent of member participation in the organization. The concepts of the gemeinschaft and gesellschaft societies, and the modern trend in general and in the universities in particular, toward the gesellschaft society show how participation is affected by organizational size. An understanding of the theory behind organizational size and member involvement is

important for the understanding of how university size affects participation in intramurals.

All too often, the word "community" is applied in a context in which it has no meaning. It has too frequently been used to describe any group of people who are gathered together in a territorially defined space. Here the word that is more appropriate would be "area", for if those people living in a group can conceive of no functional importance as a group, it remains only an area, and can never become a community.

But one may ask, what are the factors that make a group functional for all its members so that it will be a true community? By definition, a community is a social organization that is a relatively bounded and stable occurrence of social order, with an associated culture that its members can perceive (Olsen, 1968:69). Most important is the aspect of culture, shared cultural values and norms, which implies the necessity of social relationships. Implicit in these social relationships are "satisfaction of needs, common interests and goals, expectations and obligations, mutual interdependence and control" (Olsen, 1968:33). It is in this realm of satisfactory social relationships that most groups of people in our modern mass society fail. Interpersonal relations today are empty and baffling. There is a growing appeal for what Nisbet (1968) calls "pseudo-intimacy with others, a kind of pathetic dependence on superficial symbols of friendship and association" (p. 31). The

possible relief to this problem is a return to the primary relationships of small groups. People innately desire a sense of community and belonging which today's relationships cannot provide. Nisbet (1968) states that:

. . . behind the growing sense of isolation in society, behind the whole quest for community which infuses so many theoretical and practical areas of contemporary life and thought, lies the growing realization that the traditional primary relationships of men have become functionally irrelevant to our State and economy, and meaningless to the moral aspirations of individuals (p. 49).

Primary relationships as they exist today can no longer be a source of community feelings. Our modern technological age of mass production and automation has led to atomization of all social and cultural relationships. The extent to which roles have been differentiated and society has stressed individualism has made people feel completely alone and devoid of much sense of membership. The mass exodus of people from urban centres to the suburbs and exurbs, is, as Leinwand (1970) says, an attempt to regain the personalism of small communities. It is not an escape, it is a search for belonging.

But for many, the opportunity to "escape" is not available. They must remain atoms in our anonymous society. For them, instead of a sense of community, is a feeling of alienation, a ". . . continual sense thereafter of being a stranger in a foreign city" (Keniston, 1965"43). This feeling of alienation pervades the whole of their lives, their work, and their leisure. Alienation results in a total rejection of society, its values, goals, and norms.

Life becomes normless, valueless, and meaningless. Very often it is what Keniston (1965) calls "unprogrammable alienation", a rebellion without a cause or positive program with which to counter the society.

These people are in a continual search for identity. But identity is a two-way process. It involves the ". . . relationship of oneself to oneself, of oneself to others, and oneself to social institutions" (Ruitenbeek, 1964:8). When any of these relationships break down, anxiety, insecurity, and anomie result. Today's average citizen is quickly losing, if he has not already lost, his identity with himself and with others. Society demands, because of the great amount of differentiation, that every man play a multitude of roles, so that he eventually forgets his own true identity, and does not understand where the true identity of his acquaintances lies. The harder a man tries to gain and identify with meaningful relationships, the more disillusioned he becomes. The result is that ". . . he remains a lonely member of a crowd because he never comes really close to others or to himself. . . ." (Riesman, 1955:v).

A reading of Durkheim's study of suicide reveals that this lack of identity, this normlessness, is not merely a product of the last decade, but a product of this modern era. Nor is it purely a North American phenomenon. He found that ". . . the high number of voluntary deaths manifests the state of deep disturbance from which all civilized societies are suffering . . ." (Durkheim, 1951:391). He found that, even

then, individuals in huge cities ". . . without mutual relationships, tumble over one another like so many liquid molecules, encountering no central energy to retain, fix and organize them" (p. 389). The result was suicide. Today, the same societal patterns exist, and with the same results.

Several writers have argued that the tendency to avoid large, anonymous groupings is neither a recent nor in fact a learned phenomenon. They suggest that man is biologically equipped to form and protect his own small groups. In the apes, man's ancestors, one can see this tendency to draw specific boundaries, to hold them firm and defend them to their death. Man has inherited this instinct, and it is evidenced everywhere; by the formation of private properties, towns, cities, and nations. Nationalism in man, is like the territoriality of the apes. Ardrey (1961) states that:

. . . nature, by instilling in the individual a demand for exclusive living space, insures two consequences: First, that a minimum number of individuals in any population will be enabled to breed in relative security and pass on in fair certainty, the conformation of their kind. And second, that the surplus will be cast to the wolves (p. 39).

In effect, that is what man seems to have done in his large cities. He has gathered into too small a space, too many people, and therefore has infringed on the territorial instinct of man. Those who cannot survive are literally 'cast to the wolves', to make their own way. What usually occurs is that the cast-offs who survive, manage to set up their own small groups and protect them diligently. von Bertalanffy (1967) supports Ardrey's claim that man's

instinctual behaviour is designed for small groups, not for the complicated social systems that have arisen in our age (p. 50).

Historically, man's social life seems to have originated in small groups and local bands. Often these groups were formed around the close family relationships. The ties of these social relationships were fastened with ritual, and these relationships within the group were of the highest importance. Tonnies' (1957) concepts of the *gemeinschaft* and the *gesellschaft* societies aptly describes the two kinds of social organizations that have been characteristic of man.

In the *gemeinschaft* society, the following attributes are common:

. . . unity, a division of labour based on mutual aid and helpfulness; and equilibrium of individual wills in mutual interdependence; authority based upon age, wisdom, and benevolent force; common habitat; common action directed toward the common goals understood as given; kinship, friendship; reciprocal and binding sentiment; diffuse or blanket obligations; common language, custom and belief; mutual possession and enjoyment; sacred tradition, and the spirit of brotherhood (McKinney, 1966:103).

Surely in this type of society, called by Tonnies, a "community", the individual members could derive some kind of feeling of functional self-importance. It would be possible for meaningful primary relationships to occur so that true identification with the group and its goals would be the result, instead of alienation.

In the *gesellschaft* societies, the common characteristics are:

. . . separation rather than unification; individualism, action in terms of self-interest; conventions or positive and specific definitions and regulations; delimited spheres of contact; money and credit relationships; dominance by merchants, capitalists, and a power elite; obligations limited and the strivings of others disregarded on the level of sentiment; and lack of mutual familiar relations (McKinney, 1966:103).

Our mass society is gesellschaft-like, and the breakdown in mutual familiar relationships, especially the advent of the nuclear family, has been one of the most prominent features of our age. It has also been an important factor behind the identity crises and the alienation of so many members of society.

University Size and Intramural Participation

The shift from more gemeinschaft-like attributes to gesellschaft-like ones may be extremely rapid. It need not take generations of time, but may occur over a period of a few years. At the University of Alberta, a definite movement towards the gesellschaft type of social organization has taken place over the last few years.

Table 11, which includes the total university enrolment, graduate and undergraduate, since 1960, shows the rapid increase in the numbers of students that have been added in a relatively short period of time. The figures appear to show a relatively constant increase each year. Yet, an increase in population does not mean instant alienation. A group can withstand and indeed often prospers from an increase in members, since it also involves an increase in available resources. But each organization tends to have

TABLE 11

GROWTH OF THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA
GRADUATE AND UNDERGRADUATE
1960-1970

Faculties	Years										
	60-1	61-2	62-3	63-4	64-5	65-6	66-7	67-8	68-9	69-70	
Agriculture	155	181	196	279	356	386	403	463	503	500	
Arts	777	966	1205	1319	1531	1852	2239	2649	3200	3655	
Commerce	257	304	391	516	625	631	749	795	977	1150	
Dental Hygiene	0	0	0	36	32	37	41	43	46	46	
Dentistry	136	179	209	194	193	194	195	186	205	197	
Education	1603	1938	2138	2330	2607	2876	3130	3423	4087	4418	
Engineering	1071	950	893	849	922	981	1152	1283	1348	1545	
Home Economics	89	87	108	99	103	152	221	299	312	333	
Law	120	129	126	123	136	172	190	225	246	310	
Library Science	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	42	40	
Medicine	257	277	248	297	338	370	415	441	487	689	
Medical Lab Science	43	57	66	63	74	62	54	67	78	84	
Nursing	510	484	105	135	156	172	164	220	312	346	
Pharmacy	210	198	213	215	235	227	234	254	254	302	
Physical Education	106	120	150	201	224	312	348	414	477	558	
Rehab Medicine	54	39	60	70	89	91	90	126	141	173	
Science	972	1074	1248	1365	1574	1718	1839	2093	2567	3008	
	6321	6978	7356	8091	9195	10233	11464	12981	15282	17354	

an ideal limit of membership, beyond which the advantages of size are outnumbered by the disadvantages.

In the opinion of Dr. H.J. McLachlin, Associate Dean of Physical Education, who has been at the University of Alberta for over twenty years, the university reached its optimal limit of enrolment at approximately the 10,000 mark, that is, in 1965. Nevertheless, from 1965 to the present, university enrolment has almost doubled. The result has been loss of mutual association between staff and students, and among the students themselves. Before 1965, students had a greater opportunity to interact academically and socially, with the resultant increase in feelings of importance and identity. It had many more of the characteristics of *gemeinschaft* institutions. A student body over 18,000, however, cannot provide the same closeness of contact and personal relationships. Many people became for their classmates, the same as any stranger would, who they met on the street. The university as a whole, and the individual faculties no longer provide a source of community feeling, a source of identity, or an opportunity to participate for its members. Students in the large university must resort to their own resources in order to find others with whom they have a community of interest. Some do not succeed in the search.

Although, as indicated before, there are several variables which play important roles in contributing to intramural participation, the size of the university seems

to be an important one. Participation figures for the University of Alberta over the last ten years, as shown in Table 4 and Figure 2, are evidence to the fact. The participation prior to 1965 was erratic and relatively low for many reasons, among them, lack of organization, facilities, and the increasing numbers of students. In 1967, a full-time director was appointed and the improvement in the organization and communication resulted in a sharp increase in participation. Yet despite the diligent work of this director and his four assistants, the program has been unable to attract any more participants. Each year since that time, as the university has grown, participation rates steadily dropped, until in 1972, participation figures approach their lowest point since 1962. This decrease is despite the great increase in facilities with the opening of the Physical Education east wing. In actuality, it can be seen that the number of participants has risen each year, but not at all in proportion to the great increases in the student body. This is an important factor that is often neglected by directors and students of intramurals.

In response to the questionnaires that were sent to the other universities in Canada, directors of intramural programs often boasted of a great increase in participation in their programs over the years. This is no doubt, to their credit, but it is not indicative of the actual state of affairs in the program figures that they proceeded to quote. The actual percentage participation when

considering the total university enrolment, has decreased. It is not assumed that it is because a greater percentage of people are disinterested in intramurals. One can only surmise that a greater percentage of people are not being reached by the program; communication has broken down within the student body. Why? Once again it must be emphasized that there are many reasons, but the sheer greatness of the numbers that must be reached, takes its toll on participation. Genuine communication of intramural information to such a great number of people does not seem likely.

The mere increase in size of the physical plant of the university makes communication much more difficult. When the University of Alberta was smaller, the Physical Education building was much closer to the centre of student activity on the campus. Consequently the greater number of people coming into contact with the Physical Education building contributed to the ease of communication. The sprawling nature of the campus, characteristic of 1972, decreases the likelihood of many people coming near the building in the course of a day. This affects program participation also.

The effects of university size on participation in intramural sports can be seen in the general trends of other universities. Like the University of Alberta, the University of Toronto, McGill University, University of Manitoba, and the University of Western Ontario are large universities with large male populations. At the present time, none of these large universities have percentage participations over 30%,

which is relatively low. McGill University is the only "big school" that has significantly increased (from 18% to 27%), in the last ten years, its percentage participation. This current increase could be accounted for by many factors (such as facilities, budget, and organizational problems) that may have hindered the program in the past, but are now being overcome.

The University of Western Ontario likewise has extremely low rates of participation. Its percentage participation increased slightly with the coming of a full-time director, but immediately began its downward trend again. It can be assumed that one of the more important factors affecting this, is the increasing size of the university which results in anonymity and the alienation of students.

The University of Toronto shows participation figures that are a strong example of the negative effects of increasing student enrolment beyond a size where people can have some feelings of importance and identity with the group. Toronto's participation has undergone a steady decrease since 1951, diving from a high rate of 40%, to a low of 19% in 1972.

The seven smaller universities, with the single exception of Windsor University, did not show the same decreasing trend in their intramural participation rates as the universities grew. It is important to realize that these schools are increasing their student populations, but the increase seems to have yet had no detrimental effects on participation in intramurals. In most cases, the smaller universities have

relatively high rates of participation which are still increasing. With respect to university size, it seems reasonable therefore to assume that these universities, although growing, have still not reached or gone past their optimal size. Students at these universities likely still have not been overwhelmed by the numbers of students. The number of students is still small enough that some kind of mutual interdependence, and true primary relationships are available. Students still feel that they are a vital part of the student life and not merely a cog in a huge wheel.

A school such as St. Francis Xavier, involving 75% of the student body in intramurals is true support for this idea, for with all other related variables at an optimum, this percentage is still extremely high. The fact that only 1200 men must be communicated with, is definitely a strong influencing factor.

The picture is the same at almost all the other smaller universities. Université de Sherbrooke involves 68% of its male student body, McMaster 60%, and Memorial University 75%. These are very high rates. Nevertheless, the University of Montreal with 36%, and Lakehead University with 40%, smaller rates, still show participation figures that are increasing, not decreasing.

Consideration of intramural participation figures at the University of Alberta, and at the other universities across Canada, leads one to the conclusion that there is a fairly strong inverse relationship between the size of the

student body and the percentage participation. This relationship comes from not only the actual numbers of people, but from the geographical size to which the university grows in order to house the large body of students. Large universities, over 10,000 students generally show a decreasing percentage participation in intramurals, while smaller universities seem to benefit from their size and involve a greater percentage in their intramural program. There is, no doubt, an optimal size to which a university can grow before its population has adverse effects on its intramural program, but this number can only be estimated, and will usually vary depending on the other characteristics of the school.

The important question, however, of why this strong relationship between university size and intramural participation exists, cannot be completely answered, given the limitations of the present study. Several important linking processes have been pointed to in this chapter. The sheer geographical size reduces the opportunities for meaningful interaction, and therefore reduces communication of information regarding the existence and importance of intramural involvement. Related to this factor is the pervasive sense of alienation produced by the modern, complex university. This alienation, in combination with the previously mentioned negative factors associated with the *gesellschaft* type of social organization of the large university, leads to a type of student who is "turned off", and remains uninvolved in intramurals and other student activities.

An additional practical factor inhibiting participation in large schools, and one frequently overlooked, is the relative availability of facilities and opportunities to participate when there are a huge number of possible participants. Thus, while many larger universities may have more and better facilities in absolute terms, on a per capita basis, they may offer facilities and participation opportunities far inferior to the smaller universities.

This factor of the number of participation opportunities and its effects on participation in schools has been the object of study of many authors. Although the bulk of this research has been concentrated on the high school setting, the findings do have relevance for the university level.

Barker and Gump (1964) for example, studied participation in high schools of different sizes. They saw the high school as a group with homeostatic mechanisms that maintain equilibrium within the system even when the optimal number of inhabitants does not exist, since the number of behaviour settings is the same in both large and small schools. The major difference between large and small institutions is the number of students. Since the number of opportunities to participate are equal, but the large school has many more students, the result is that participation in smaller schools will be higher.

Barker and Gump (1964, p. 67) support their theories with the fact that the number of participants per thousand students was smallest in the largest schools, and greatest in

the second and third smallest schools. They also found that small schools had relatively few students reporting no activities and three or fewer activities, and many students reporting twenty-one or more activities. Friesen (1968) also found that 49.3% of the large urban school students in his study participated in no extracurricular activities.

According to Barker and Gump (1964), the largest school contained sixty-five times the number of students, five times the number of athletic behaviour settings, and four times as many kinds of athletic settings as the smallest school. This constantly increasing proportion of students to participation opportunities in large schools is surely indicative of how large universities could negatively affect participation in intramurals.

Wakefield (1968) advocates the breakdown of large groups into smaller groups, especially in the school situation. This matter has become of great importance due to the recent trend in education toward building large schools, and centralizing rural community education. Realizing the importance of the small group in terms of participation, Wakefield pleads for concern for the psychological and participation costs of the big centralized schools, instead of saving in dollar costs. He states that schools with over 700 students have " . . . 1) less personal contact, 2) questionable psychological effects, 3) lower participation in extracurricular activities, and 4) weaker staff communication" (Wakefield, 1968:16).

Findings from the present study show that the negative

effects on participation of large organizations is applicable not only to the high school setting, but to the universities as well. The declining rates of participation in intramurals in universities with over 10,000 students is strong proof to this fact. Even when good facilities, a good budget, and a keen intramural director are available, as at the University of Alberta, this declining trend cannot be changed. The other universities across Canada show the same trends.

Tonnies' concepts of the *gemeinschaft* and *gesellschaft* societies explain the difference between large and small organizations and the type of relationships they foster. The *gesellschaft* society, toward which society in general and this university in particular, is heading, has definitely adverse effects on participation. Authors have shown that much of this effect comes from the loss of a sense of community and identity inherent with large organizations. The work of Barker and Gump (1964), and Wakefield (1968) illustrate this on a very practical level. Large organizations simply do not have as many participation opportunities per capita as do the smaller ones.

Unfortunately, in the present rush toward consolidation of schools in favour of economic efficiency, the urgings of such writers as Barker and Gump, and Wakefield have gone unheeded. Schools are becoming larger and larger, and this is taking its toll with respect to participation in intramurals.

Intramural administrators must be aware of these relationships between the size of the universities and involvement in intramurals, so that through the organization and planning of their programs, they may attempt to counteract the "gesellschaft" trend. Some of these methods are discussed in Chapter IV.

CHAPTER IV

INTRAMURAL SIZE AND PARTICIPATION: RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN UNIT SIZE, FORMATION CRITERIA, AND STUDENT INVOLVEMENT

Although, as stated in the previous chapter, the aspect of university size is an important factor influencing participation in the intramural program, this factor appears to be of secondary importance to the size and nature of the intramural unit itself. That is, it appears that university size influences the tendency of students to become an important and functionally involved part of the school, and also conditions the actual quantity of participation opportunities available. However, this alone does not determine that the student in the large school will participate in intramurals. Examination of participation rates within both large and small units suggests that the social structure of the participation unit itself is most important. It is the size and "community"-nature of this "primary" unit that seems to be most crucial to getting people involved in intramurals.

Barker and Gump's (1964) work, mentioned previously, showed much greater participation in small groups than in large groups. This is a result of the stronger and more varied forces resulting from the smaller groups. The stronger forces result, according to Barker and Gump, in: 1) greater individual efforts, where people are forced to work harder and longer toward their goals, and toward maintenance of the

group, 2) more difficult and more important tasks, the importance and difficulty coming because of the lack of varied resources to draw on. The wider range of forces acting results in: 1) coping with a wider variety of activities because each person must fill more positions and play more roles, 2) meeting and interacting with a greater number and variety of the people in the group, 3) being less sensitive or critical toward differences and capabilities in other people. The final result is that the members each have more functional importance in the group, they get more responsibilities, and a greater functional self-identity (Barker and Gump, 1964: 23-6). The result is greater participation.

Data from the University of Alberta shows similar trends in intramural participation. For example, in the Dentistry unit, which is a relatively small unit, 186 members of the faculty of 192 were active participants in the program, which is 94.1% of the faculty. Even Physical Education with a faculty enrolment of 365 had a percentage participation of 65.5%. It seems, however, that once this size is reached, the participation rates of units larger than this decreases quickly to the 30% range. A prime example of the effects of large units is the Arts and Science faculty. With 3706 members, it is only able to actively involve 30.3% of its members in intramurals. The Education unit, with 1573 members, though not the largest unit, had the lowest participation rate of 23.8%. In a case such as this, it is assumed that the unit managers had not devoted sufficient time to their intramural

duties.

The intramural program provides the same number of basic behavioural settings to all units. Each unit may have at least one team in the twenty-seven different sports activities. Therefore, there is more opportunity within the Dentistry faculty, for example, for all of its members to participate, than in the Arts and Science unit where there may not be 3706 opportunities to participate, even if everyone wanted to.

Just as Barker and Gump (1964) predicted, this situation of an equal number of behaviour settings, requires those in the smaller groups to participate in a greater number and variety of ways. Dentistry, the second smallest unit, had an average number of activities per person of 4.2. The other smaller groups such as the Apathy Club, Latter Day Saints, and St. Joseph's also had high participations per person with 3.3, 3.7, and 3.3 activities respectively. The fraternities also scored high in this respect, averaging over three activities per person.

Barker and Gump were not the only authors to study the effect of group size on participation. Kelley and Thibaut (1954) found that the proportion of members who were non-contributors increases as the group size increases, and the active members become more differentiated from the rest of the group. The result is often the alienation of non-active members. Bales (1953) found that as group size increased, the average number of persons participating did

not increase correspondingly, and therefore a smaller proportion of the group participated.

Results from the University of Alberta intramural program exhibit the same trend. The following graphs, Figures 7 through 12, show how the growth of the intramural units has affected participation.

Thought in reference to the size of a group and the distinct advantage of the small group, brings back the consideration of the two concepts of community and identity. Both of these concepts were discussed briefly in the previous chapter in relation to the university size and its effects on participation. But a discussion of size of intramural units without reference to these concepts would also not be complete.

According to Minar and Greer (1969):

Community is both empirically descriptive of a social structure, and normatively toned. It refers both to the unit of a society as it is, and to the aspects of the unit that are valued if they exist, desired in their absence . . . It expresses our vague yearnings for commonality of desire, a communion with those around us, an extension of the bonds of kin and friend to all those who share a common fate with us (p. ix).

From this statement, it is clear that the concept of community can be viewed in two ways. One meaning refers to community as the physical or geographical location of a group of people; the other concerns a more abstract form of the word. It is a feeling or sense of belonging, of importance of the group to the individual, and the individual to the group. It can be called a 'sense of community' or a 'community of interest'. The latter implies several aspects of community that are important with respect to the intramural program.

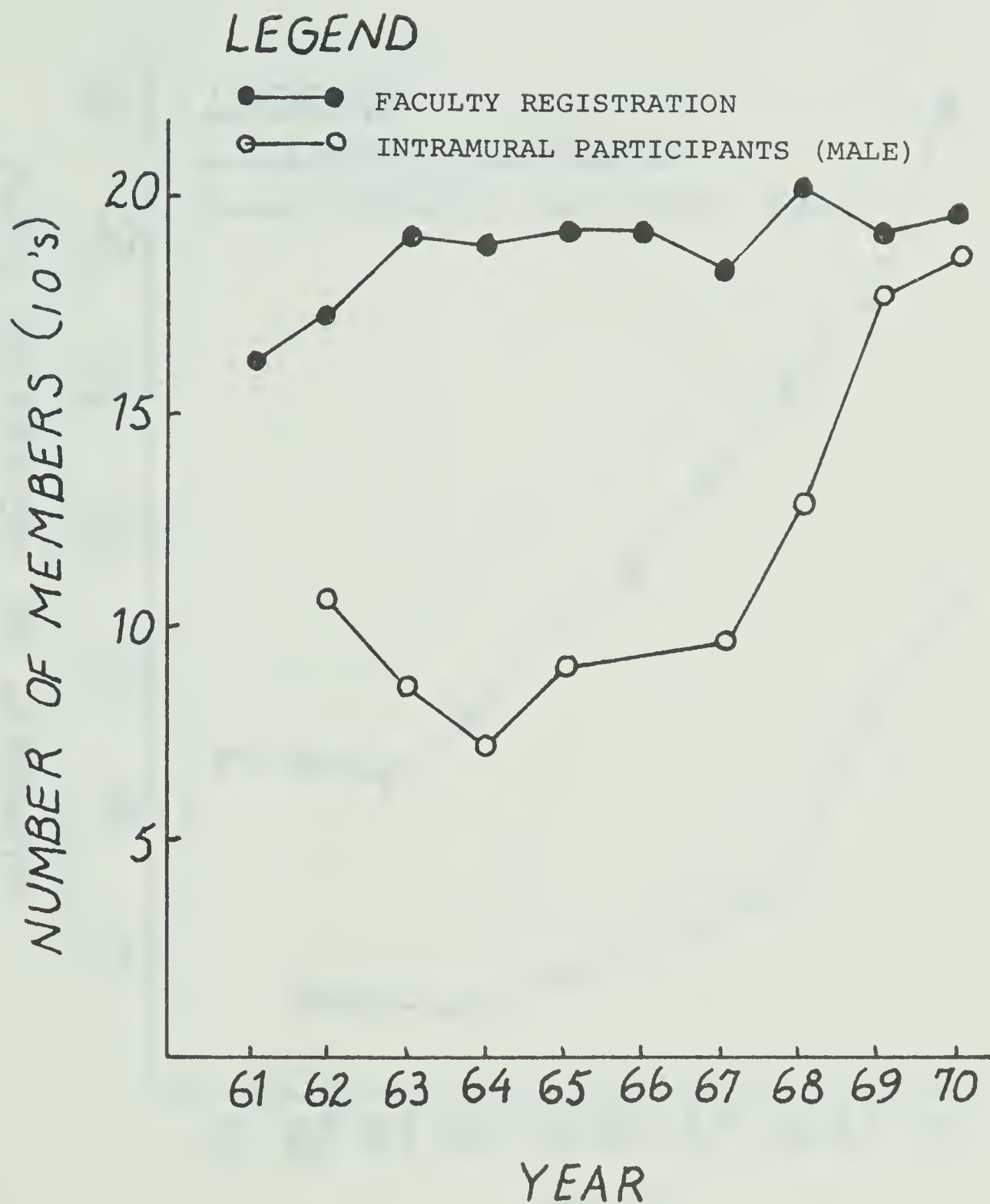


FIGURE 7 FACULTY ENROLMENT AND MALE INTRAMURAL PARTICIPATION FOR DENTISTRY 1961-1970

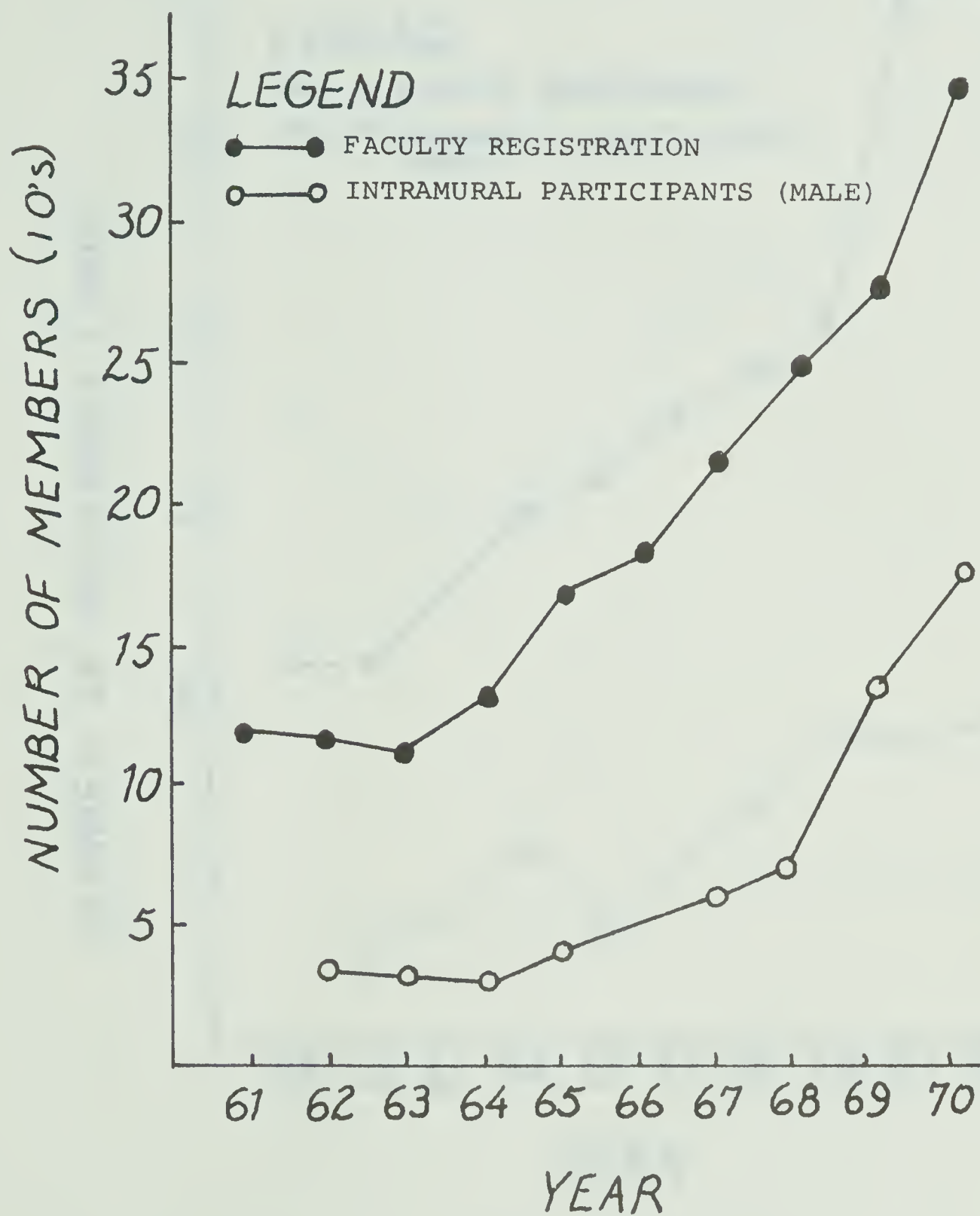


FIGURE 8 FACULTY ENROLMENT AND MALE
INTRAMURAL PARTICIPATION
FOR LAW 1961-1970

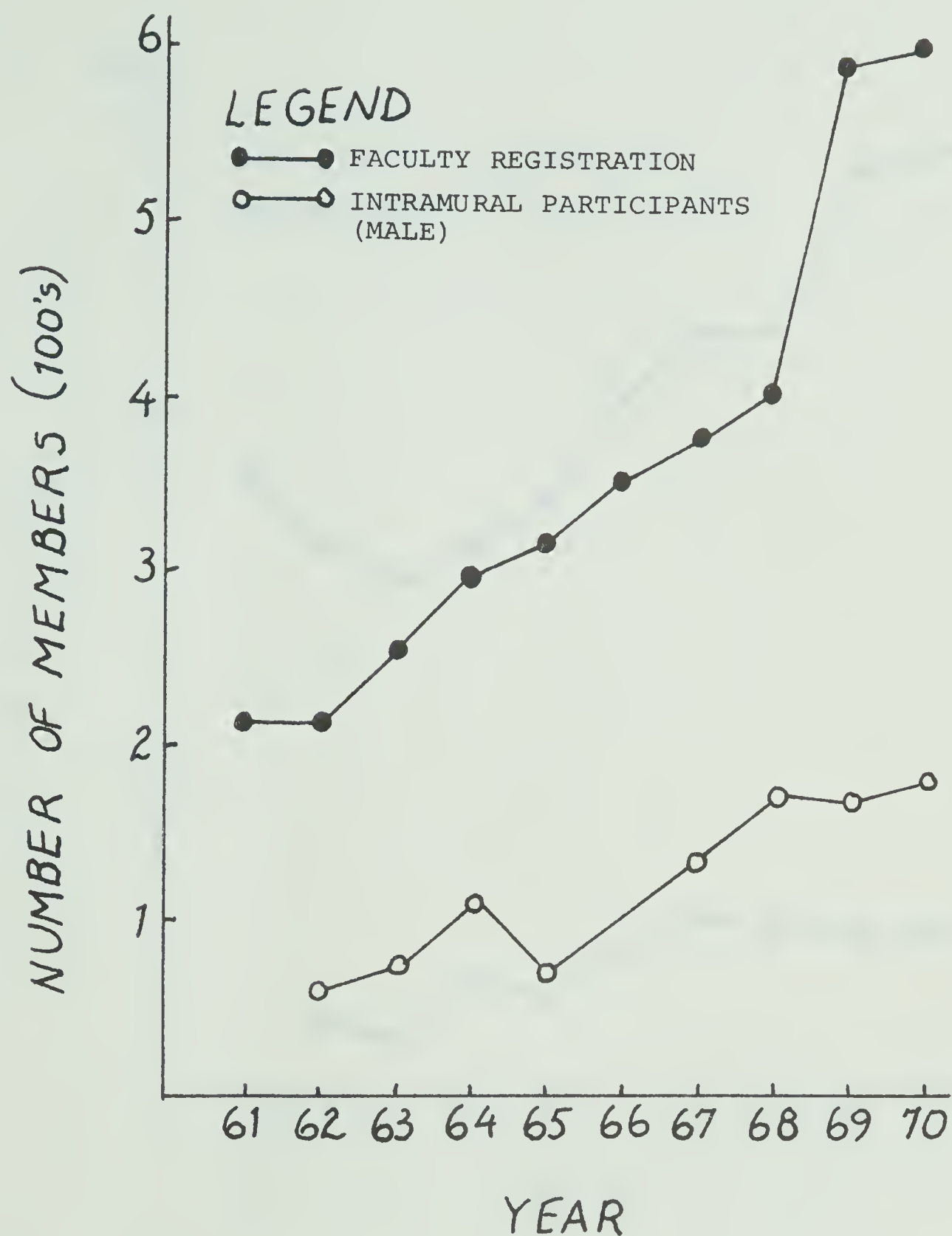


FIGURE 9 FACULTY ENROLMENT AND MALE
INTRAMURAL PARTICIPATION
FOR MEDICINE 1961-1970

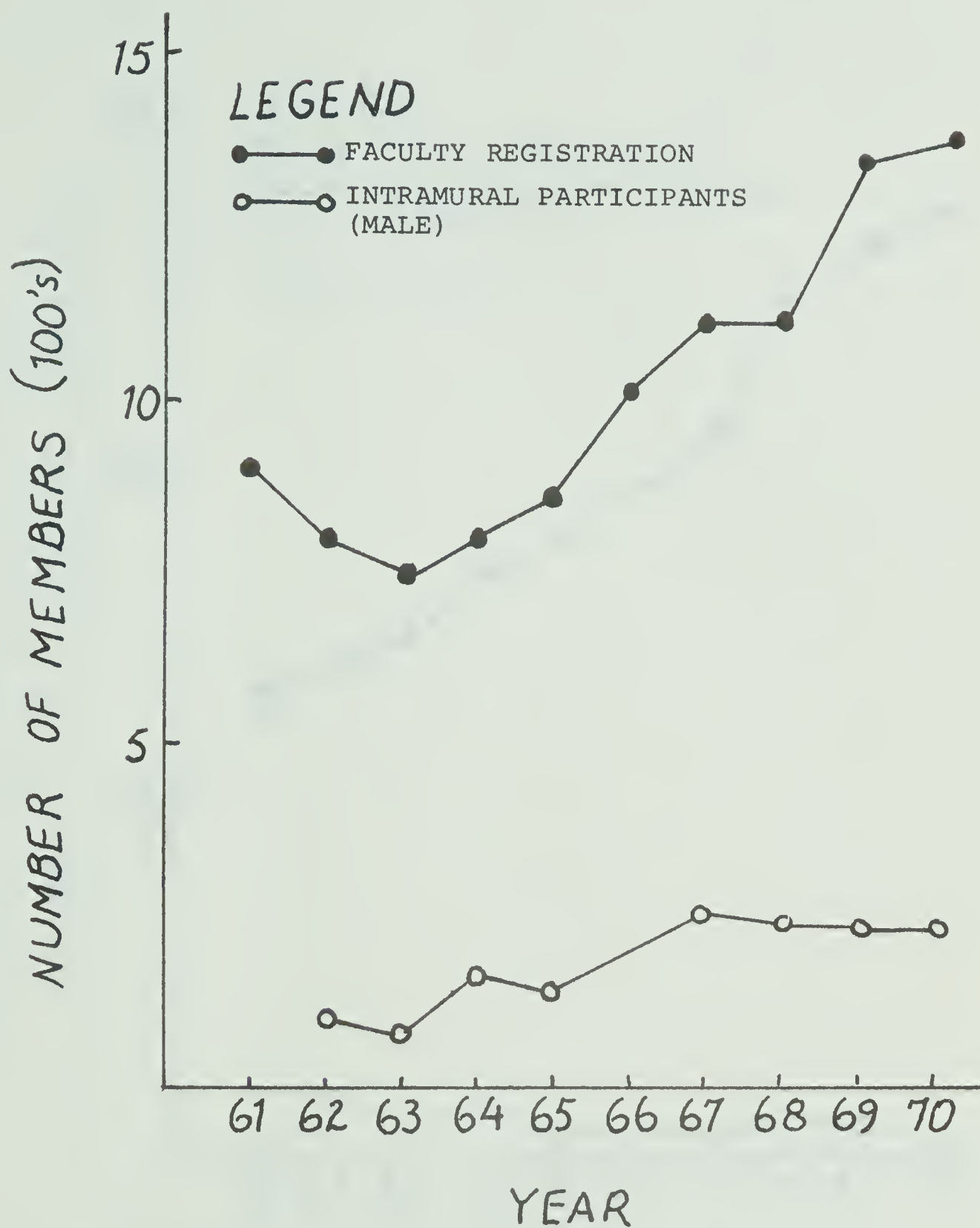


FIGURE 10 FACULTY ENROLMENT AND MALE INTRAMURAL PARTICIPATION FOR ENGINEERING 1961-1970

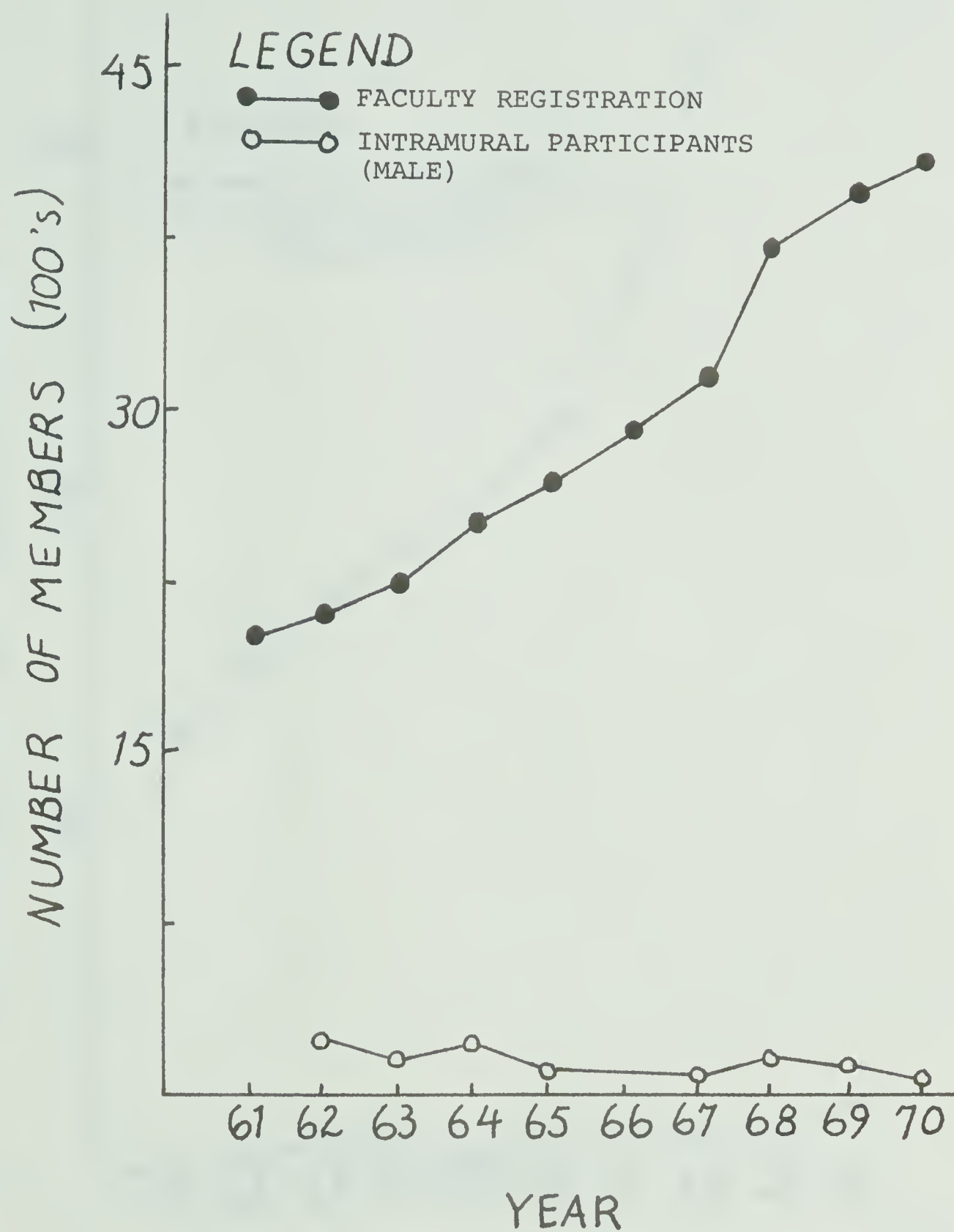


FIGURE 11 FACULTY ENROLMENT AND MALE
INTRAMURAL PARTICIPATION
FOR EDUCATION 1961-1970

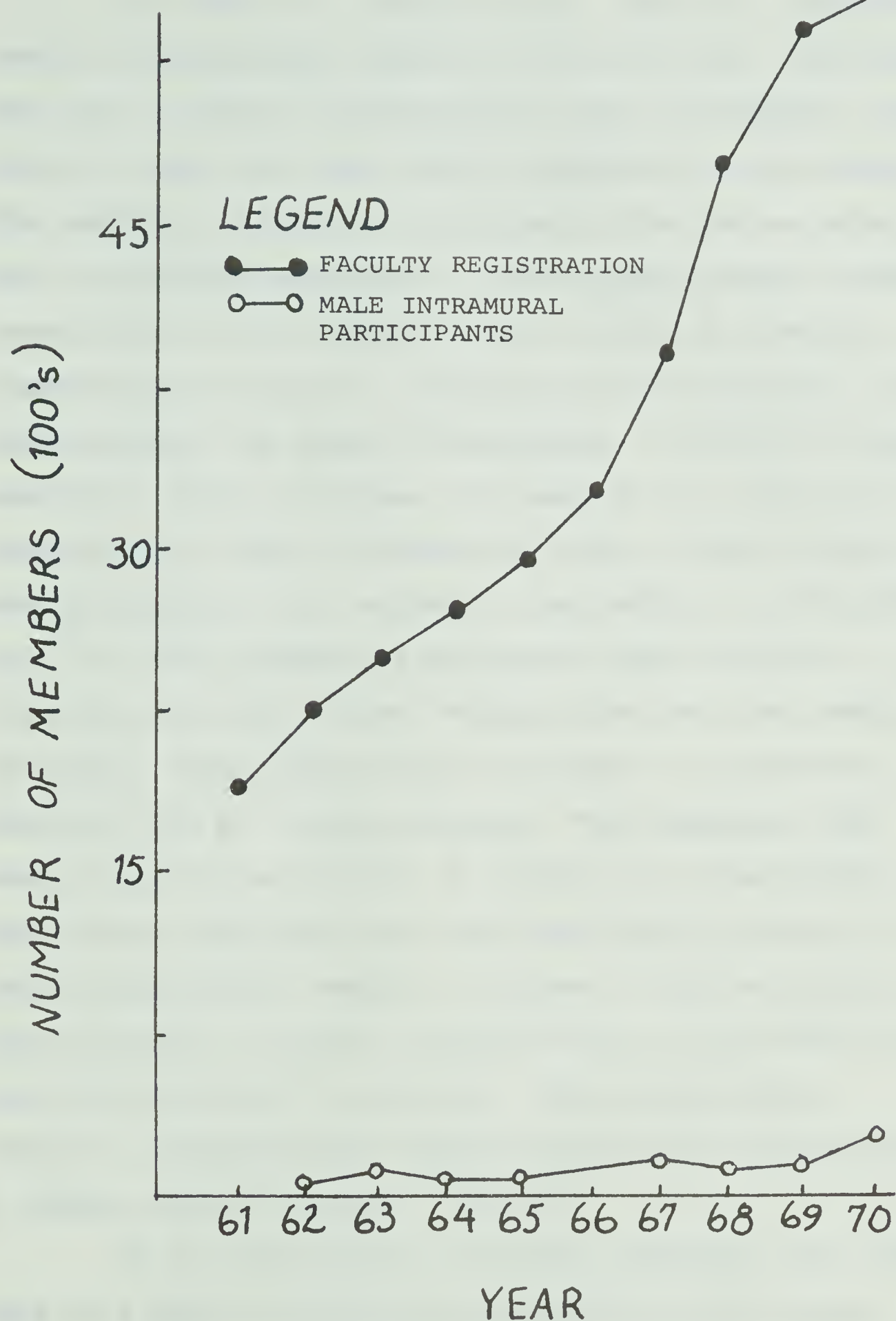


FIGURE 12 FACULTY ENROLMENT AND MALE INTRAMURAL PARTICIPATION FOR ARTS AND SCIENCE 1961-1970

In order to achieve this sense of community, certain organizational needs must first be met. The group must have a mutual interdependence among its members, shared cultural ideas, and some overall patterns of social order. The members of a group or organization are the raw materials for its continued existence. But as stated before, mutual co-existence is not enough to give a sense of community. As human beings, we have an innate desire for meaningful social relationships, not merely co-existence. In order to have meaningful social relations, the members in a group need satisfaction, common interests and goals, certain expectations and obligations, some control of, and mutual interdependence with, the other members of the group (Olsen, 1968:33). If the group can obtain these feelings from the other members of the group, three things begin to develop: 1) boundaries, 2) stability and 3) a unique culture. The boundaries that develop may not be physical or visible, but identifiable by the values, characteristics, and behavioural actions of the various participant members. Because of the very nature of these sources of boundary identification, rigid social boundaries are difficult to maintain. This organization " . . . becomes a community when members perceive the organization as a 'social entity'" (Olsen, 1968:69).

Of all the aspects that make a community, and contribute to a sense of community, the aspect of the unique culture is one of the most important. A unique culture involves the shared values, goals, and norms of the community.

If this culture is not strong enough, or if in fact the group becomes so large that values and goals cannot be communicated to the whole group, then members lose the ability to identify with this culture. Connected with this ability to identify with a shared culture, is the fact that a member must also see himself and his role as a functional part of the community's culture. In other words, he must be able to identify himself as important to the group, as well as the group having some importance to him. This is what Olsen (1968) refers to as "mutual interdependence." When this is not felt, members lose sight of goals, values, and norms, and become dissatisfied, alienated, and deviant.

Very often, this loss of cultural identity with the group, this dissatisfaction, results when a group becomes too large. Katz (1949) found that there was more satisfaction among small group members, and that each individual felt more importance in the group. The two, as has been shown, are definitely related, since a feeling of importance will lead to more satisfaction. Tallachi (1960) also found decreased satisfaction and morale in large groups, and the reaction was avoidance of the group by absenteeism.

It would appear that the small group of Dentistry students, for example, had such a high participation rate (94%) because each one of them was needed to fill the demands of the intramural unit (see Table 2). Each one, therefore could have a feeling of importance derived from the fact that he had a functional role to play within the group. Through

this, a certain level of satisfaction would result which would then increase the desire to participate. On the other hand, an Arts and Science student would not feel the same necessity for his presence at an intramural event. He knows that there are 3705 other Arts and Science students to fill in the roles needed for intramural sports, and his absence would not likely be noticed. This is how such feelings of alienation, unimportance and non responsibility to one's unit affects participation in these large anonymous groups, and why Arts and Science has such a low percentage participation (30%).

Very often, the large groups which alienate people due to the lack of shared cultural identification and sense of community, cause two side-effects of participation. One, as was already discussed, is the resultant total lack of interest in participating for the group in any capacity, which is the route that 70% of the Arts and Science students took. They remain members of the group, but do not actively participate in any of its goals. The second result is the formation of splinter groups, which was chosen by 25% of the Arts and Science students. Since these members cannot identify with, and have no common interest with the Arts and Science unit, they break away from the group and form their own group with others of similar interests. Olsen (1968) found that as an organization increases in size, it increases in complexity. This results in greater specialization and differentiation between members, which encourages the

formation of sub-groups of different interests. These sub-units become more specialized in their own interests, and their activities become completely different, losing all connection with the original organization (p. 71). This formation of splinter groups along the lines of common interest has been common to the University of Alberta intramural program. It is especially evident in the program with the organization of smaller units such as fraternities, social groups like the Apathy Club, and religious and ethnic group units. Klapp (1969) states, "In a society which suffers from banality, it is plain that fraternal organizations like the Shriners . . . have a buffering function to protect their members from the meaninglessness of society at large" (p. 145). As stated before, only 30% of the Arts and Science students participate in intramurals, 5% participate for the Arts and Science unit itself, and 25% for the smaller splinter groups just mentioned (see Table 3). When these facts are taken into consideration, a look at the Arts and Science faculty shows very disturbing trends. Only 5% of the faculty feel any sort of identification with the faculty as a social entity. They do not share the values, goals, and norms of the faculty, and feel no sense of community with the group of people called "Arts and Science students." This is surely telling of the state of affairs in our universities. People cannot survive as anonymous numbers in a large crowd. They need to have opportunities to associate with much smaller groups, and with groups that are formed out of mutual

interests. The Arts and Science faculty is, in effect, not a community or *gemeinschaft* at all, for only 5% of its members feel any sense of community connected with it or perceive it as a social entity, which according to Olsen (1968) is a prerequisite of a group or organization becoming a community. Unfortunately for those interested in intramural sports, the Arts and Science faculty is not perceived as a functional unit. It became a unit many years ago when it had a much smaller membership, but in 1971, it had no functional importance for its members. Members are arbitrarily assigned to a unit which holds no value for them. It is a forced association. Barker and Gump (1964) quote many authors as having found that people " . . . participate more frequently when participation is voluntary, " (p. 36) and when they are interested in the affairs of the group or organization. Fortunately students at the University of Alberta are able to participate for any group that they wish, and form units of their own. This practice has resulted in evidence to the fact that people do not participate well for a group to which they are arbitrarily assigned if that unit has no functional meaning for them. They will participate well for a group voluntarily chosen and formed along lines of community interest. The Dentistry team is an example of a successful team based on the first type. As an intramural unit, it was arbitrarily chosen and has a high participation rate. However, when an arbitrary boundary is congruent with functionally meaningful professional communities of interest, it has

the same effect as voluntary boundaries of community.

The second type of community mentioned by Minar and Greer (1969), the geographical community, also plays an important role in participation in intramurals. Generally, it can be assumed that geographical community contributes to the 'sense of community'. In situations where a group is gathered together in a relatively small area, where they meet each other regularly, a greater sense of community develops. Hare (1962) states that ". . . the attraction of persons to each other tends to be greater among those who are in spatial locations that promote interaction, and liking tends to decrease, sometimes to hostility, as physical distances increase" (p. 278). We know that social relationships are very important to man, and that the greater the number, and the stronger his social relationships, the greater will be his sense of community. When people are confined to small physical spaces (not including over crowded conditions), there is much more opportunity to be in frequent contact with other members of the group, which reinforces the relationships. For example, within the School of Dentistry, most of the students take their classes together throughout the four years that they are in the faculty. The Dentistry faculty is contained within part of one building only, which makes for constant physical contact since all classes will be held in that building. The courses which Dentistry students take are all set and required in order to graduate. There is, therefore, constant interaction with the

small number of people in the faculty, and a good sense of community is developed.

On the other hand, the physical spaces in which the Arts and Science student operates are almost unlimited. These students may take courses in many departments. Even those students who are working towards similar goals, may not necessarily take the same courses. As a result, Arts and Science students may never be in more than one class with the same student. This is hardly an atmosphere conducive to the meaningful social relationships so essential to a community of feeling based on the Arts and Science faculty.

This factor of small geographical space can be a reason for some of the differences that appear in the University of Alberta data. A community of interest or the sense of community is deemed the most important of the two types of community when considering the effects on intramural participation. However, if a small physical community is present as well as the sense of community, participation will be enhanced. Where this factor is most clearly evident, is in the splinter groups--the fraternities, the religious groups, and the ethnic groups. With these groups, often their full membership is not attracted to participate in intramurals, even though they have a high community of interest. They may have awareness of, and concern for, their group's goals, but the fact that they do not have constant interaction, on a daily basis, the way that a small group in

a small space does, they may not get as involved in these goals as they could. Often these groups meet only once a week on a formal basis. These smaller groups, although their full membership does not participate, often make up for this lack by attracting other people to participate for them, that do not formally belong to the organization. This is especially true in the case of the fraternity units.

Another problem that arises as a result of over-size in the intramural units is communication. If a sense of community is to be developed, shared goals and norms, and values must exist. However, in order to have these "shared," it is absolutely necessary that all members are aware of them, and that means good communication must exist. According to Hare (1962):

. . . size is a limiting condition on the amount and quality of communication that can take place among members as individual persons, and hence tends to affect the character of interpersonal orientations that members develop toward each other (p. 224).

A good communication network therefore can not only ensure the sharing of the group's unique culture, but also reinforces and enhances the social relationships. Barker and Gump (1964) found that in small groups and ecological units, there is firstly, a greater participation in communication and social interaction, and less centralization of communication around a few persons (p. 36). In other words, communication can be carried on by everyone "passing the word" instead of it depending solely on one person. Secondly, communication is facilitated because it can be clarified and is not as

difficult to pass on accurately.

In an intramural unit, a unit manager is selected and is responsible for disseminating information about the forthcoming activities, encouraging people to participate, and ensuring that a representative team reports to the games. Undoubtedly, the unit manager who has only 192 people to communicate with, as is the case of the Dentistry manager, has a much easier time recruiting participants than does the unit manager with 3507 people to contact. The Dentistry unit manager can personally contact all members of the faculty by talking to four classes, one for each year, since there are compulsory courses in every year. The Arts and Science unit manager, however, is not so fortunate. With his potential participants spread all over the campus at any one time, he must rely on posters for his communication. Personal contact is virtually impossible, and what usually happens is that the unit manager will contact those who made an appearance at the first few games, and neglect the others as a waste of time. Very little effort is made to reach the thousands who are not participating at that moment. Davis (1969) states, concerning the various modes of communication, that people are much more sensitive to facial cues, gestures, and intonations of personal contact, than any other kind, and for a large group this cannot be provided.

"The attitudes and behaviour of the leader apparently can influence the communication network appreciably . . ."
(Hare, 1962:288). The unit manager, as the leader of the

group when considering intramural sports, can greatly influence participation in intramurals. If the unit manager does not take pride in his job, and make an earnest attempt to communicate with as many members as possible, the percentage participation will be affected to a great extent. As an example, the Arts and Science unit has twice had the benefit of a keen unit manager who has done much to overcome the unit's poor representation. Table 5 and Figure 3 show unit participation took a great leap in 1967-8 and once again in 1970-71. According to Mr. Hugh Hoyles, the intramural director, during both of these years the unit manager worked hard to improve his unit's standing in intramurals. For this reason, although percentage figures are low, the upward trend in participation that the unit displays in Figure 3 seems to contradict the other observed trends. It has been stated also, by Hoyles, that the lower participation percentages of Pharmacy (45%) in comparison to the other smaller units, can be attributed to the unit manager. The very poor representation of the Education faculty unit, (28%), the lowest of all the units, was reported to be due to the poor performance of the unit managers.

In other cases, however, the units have asked for, and been granted permission to have two unit managers within certain larger units. This system appears to have helped in these cases, and lightened the load for one person who had often previously become discouraged by the seemingly fruitless nature of his task. This system, however, will work.

only if the two managers keep in constant contact with each other.

Communication, therefore, both the two-way kind among the individual members of a group, and the one-way kind between the leader of the group and the members, is extremely important to the successful functioning of an intramural unit.

The whole aspect of community can be seen to be important in determining how intramural units are formed. The units should be small and will be much more effective if formed along community of interest lines. It is also evident that participation can be improved upon even more if the geographical community of the intramural unit is small.

Data from the University of Alberta has borne out these facts, but trends in the other universities in Canada, lend support to them also. For example, at the University of Toronto where intramural units are based upon the traditional faculties, schools, and residences, it is the smaller professional or religious schools that have sustained their common interest more than the larger traditional schools resembling the gesellschaft arrangement.

The trend is the same at McGill University and at the University of Manitoba. Once again, the smaller professional schools have the greatest participation. Residence units here, as elsewhere, do not always fare well with intramural participation since these groups are as arbitrarily put together by university administration as are the faculties.

At the smaller universities where participation is

generally very high, the units are more than often small too. For example, St. Francis Xavier averages sixty people per unit, and although they are based on residences, the groups are small enough to maintain an interest in intramurals. The Université de Sherbrooke has small units that are also based on faculty, but participation is high here also.

The University of Montreal which has small units based entirely on interested groups has doubled its rate of participation in the last two years. McMaster University in 1969 changed over to the formation of units by interested groups, and since that time has enjoyed a doubling in participation, from 30% to 60%.

Other universities are beginning to look into the benefits of unit formation by "interested groups." The University of Windsor, whose program has suffered from constantly decreasing participation rates over the last few years, plans, in 1972-3 to implement a system where units are based on communities of interest. They are hopeful that this will reverse their current participation trends. Other universities, such as the University of Western Ontario, and the University of Alberta have introduced this type of program to a small extent. Western Ontario has an open league for interested groups to play against each other. Although this is still in its beginning stages, with publicity it could, in the near future, be the most successful part of their program. Here at the University of Alberta, the formation of voluntary interested groups has increased, and data shows

that it attracts the greatest percentage of the participants.

The preceding pages hold evidence to the fact that small units are best for maximizing participation. If a unit is small, and is formed along the lines of community interests, participation will likely increase even more. If these two previous conditions are present, and the group also has a small geographic community in which it interacts frequently, this added condition will further enhance participation. There are however, other factors that must be considered when appraising the quality and quantity of participation in an intramural program. These can all be discussed under the idea of commitment.

According to Kanter (1968) commitment ". . . refers to the willingness of social actors to give their energy and loyalty to social systems, the attachment of personality systems to social relations which are seen as self-expressive" (p. 499). A social organization which desires to have members committed to its goals, must consider three aspects: social control, group cohesiveness, and continuance of the system. In order to ensure that these aspects of the organization are present, they must be dealt with as three separate problems ". . . with potentially independent solutions" (Kanter, 1968: 500). It is possible for an organization to exist with any one of these as a problem so that, a discussion of organizational stability must involve continuance commitment, cohesion commitment, and control commitment. Continuance commitment

involves getting members to participate in the system and remain members. Cohesion commitment is commitment to ". . . group solidarity, to a set of social relationships . . ." (Kanter, 1968: 500) which is strong enough to withstand threats from outside forces. Control commitment is that which causes members to uphold the norms and obey the authority of the group. Therefore, if a social organization must depend on the commitment of its participants for its existence, the group will be more successful as a group, if social arrangements are used to try and maintain all three types of commitment.

In order to ensure that an individual will commit himself to the controls of the group it is necessary that the norms and the values of the group are consistent with his own self-identity, or else accepting the authority of others in the group will have no personal attractiveness for him. Sometimes a person who sees the group as being potentially acceptable to him in many ways, may actually reformulate his own identity in order to meet the ideals of the system. But, no matter how the individual comes to submit himself to the group's authority, he should in return, derive some kind of meaning, identification, and power from the group. He should see that as a member of the group, he has much more power than without it. Kanter (1968) suggests that there are two kinds of mechanisms for ensuring control commitment: mortification and surrender (p. 511). However, since in the intramural program, the aim is for voluntary participation, for involvement from those who truly enjoy

physical activity through sports, the first mechanism seems rather out of place. Mortifying sanctions are extremely coercive and necessitate individuals being filled with self-recrimination at failures, and feeling totally "owned" by the group. Mortification ". . . reduces his sense of autonomous identity so that he can have no self-esteem unless he commits himself to the norms of the group" (Kanter, 1968:512). Findings of the present study, and observation of contemporary students wishing to "do their own thing," suggest that coercive arbitration would hurt, rather than help participation.

Surrender, on the other hand, is a mechanism that encourages a participant to surrender some of his own decision-making rights to other people. In other words, an individual looks to the other members for meaning and direction with respect to the group. In the intramural sports program, the various units are not strict organizations that try to crush individualism under the charisma of a great leader. Control is put in the hands of the unit manager who then demands some kind of submission to his authority. However, he is not the only authority in the group. Very often the group will not have any appointed leaders or hierarchy of command, but due to the natural differences in capabilities and personalities, certain leading persons assume power. In a voluntary group such as an intramural unit, it is these leaders, with the backing of the other committed members who can impose sanctions and make the sanctions enough of a threat, that members

will commit themselves to their control. Therefore, if a social organization such as the intramural unit can obtain the respect of its members for its norms and values, and if participation is an upheld value, then the unit will be more likely to be successful than a unit which does not have this control commitment.

Cohesion commitment:

. . . involves the attaching of an individual's fund of affectivity and emotion to the group, emotional gratification stems from participation in and from identification with, all of the members of a close-knit group (Kanter, 1968:513).

If a group is cohesive, it is stable and solid, and is not plagued with the jealousies and fighting that make a group vulnerable to outside forces. In this situation, members are bound to each other and to the ideals of the community. Kanter (1968) feels that in its strictest sense, this kind of commitment involves members giving up any emotional ties which compete with their involvement in the group, and that this relinquishing should bring them into a feeling of "oneness" with the group. To ensure this commitment, then, the group must use the mechanisms of renunciation and communion (Kanter, 1968:507).

Renunciation of all other ties which conflict with the group is an extreme to which some organizations, whose main motive is money, must go. However, in the intramural sport situation, where enjoyment is the motive, it is not necessary to force this extreme on group members. What this fact points out though, is that if groups are formed along lines of

friendship groups of common interest, then their affectional ties will already be mostly concentrated within the group, and group cohesiveness will thereby be increased. According to Hare (1962), ". . . as the size of the group decreases, the strength of the affectional ties between the members increases . . ." (p. 227). Barker and Gump (1964) also state that there is greater group cohesiveness, and more frequent liking among group members in small groups. Therefore, in small groups it is much easier to develop strong affectional ties. It is important to emphasize that all of the concentration of loyalties, allegiances and emotional attachment comes "ready-made" if the group is one of voluntary associations where the group members are already close friends. Very often, in order to maintain this close bond among members, the group sets restrictions on its membership to reduce the likelihood of non-loyal members becoming part of the group. This process of insulation or insularism is a common method of preserving identity according to Klapp (1969). Coleman (1964) states that ". . . one alternative which the members of the smaller group have for increasing the strength of their group's norms, is to reduce their association with the outside and increase their internal association" (p. 483).

The mechanism of communion is really an emphasis on group participation, doing things as a group, for the good of the group. It is a conscious effort to have people feel a togetherness, a "we-ness" in everything that they do. Of course, the only way to achieve this is to have the group

continually participating together. In the intramural program, therefore, there would be an emphasis on team games rather than on individual games, in order to maintain the group feeling.

The great benefits of having obtained cohesion commitment from the members of an intramural unit is evident in the University of Alberta program. The Dentistry unit, for example, is a group that interacts frequently, since it holds all of its classes in the same building, and members of the same year take almost all their courses together. They have a common interest through their chosen profession, and they therefore have similar values in relation to the faculty. Since, as Gullahorn (1952) found, people who interact frequently tend to develop "sentiments of friendship" or affectional ties (p. 350), it is assumed that members of the Dentistry school develop their closest friendships within the school. This is especially true when the time they are allowed to spend away from their studies is very limited, so that they are in fact, insulated from many other social relationships. Since the intramural unit is formed from members whose affectional ties are already firmly bound, the group will automatically have cohesion commitment.

On the other hand, the Arts and Science faculty is so large that interaction with all of the members of the group is impossible. Therefore, automatically the aspect of communion, of "oneness" is lost. At the same time, their course work is so varied and divergent, that common goals and

interests cannot be established. Davis (1969) found that when there was a commonness of purpose, mutual association and friendship was high (p. 78). Arts and Science therefore does not have the affectional bonds that are necessary for cohesion commitment or for participation. When there are no bonds between the members, there is often a "hide-in-the-crowd" attitude, so that they will not have to participate. It is evident, then, that cohesion is extremely difficult in any large organization.

The strength of affectional ties is suggested in Table 3. In all cases, the small faculty units had the majority of their faculty participate for the faculty unit, while the larger units had the majority of their faculty members participate for units other than the faculty unit. Of special note is the Dentistry and Law faculties, with only 4.1% and 6.1% respectively, of their members participating outside the faculty unit. On the other hand, both the Education and Arts and Science faculty units could only attract 5.1% of their members to participate for the faculty's intramural unit. The bonds of friendship within these groups were not strong enough because of the size of the faculties and the lack of a community of interest among their members.

Another important aspect of cohesion commitment concerns involvement. Kanter (1968) stated that with cohesion ". . . gratifications stem from involvement with all the members of the group" (p. 500). In a social organization people want to feel needed and involved, that they are

contributing to the group as a whole. Once again, this cannot occur unless the group is small enough that there are opportunities for the involvement of everyone, as was stated by Barker and Gump (1964). An individual cannot become committed to a group in which he cannot become involved. An interview with Dr. P.C. Sartoris of Student Counselling at the University of Alberta revealed that this is one of the reasons why students withdraw from the university. He suggests that Arts, Science, and Engineering have extremely high drop-out rates, in part, because the faculties are too large and diverse to win the commitment of the students. They cannot become motivated to get involved because no clear image for the future is available. The professional schools of Medicine and Dentistry have low drop-out rates, in part, because they can become committed to a clear professional identity. As Keniston (1965) states:

Any sense of personal identity achieves much of its coherence from commitment. The objects of commitment can vary. . . but without some positive commitment, a sense of personal wholeness is difficult to achieve (p. 185).

This lack of commitment to the university program, referred to by Dr. Sartoris, has a great effect also in the intramural program, since it cannot hope to gain participants in an academic system that alienates the members through lack of commitment. The trend is the same in the other universities across Canada, for the participation rates were greater in the units formed around professional schools, than those based on the Arts or Science faculties.

In summary, cohesion commitment, necessary for the

successful functioning of an intramural unit is much greater in small groups that are voluntarily formed along interest or friendship lines, or among groups which are capable of developing strong affectional ties. These bonds create the desire to be involved, and in the intramural program, involvement means participation.

Continuance commitment, or commitment to remain as members, involves social economics. A group member will weigh the costs of remaining with the group against the profits he would incur by staying. If the member is going to stay, the profits must outweigh the costs. Therefore, according to Kanter (1968), the mechanisms of sacrifice and investment will ensure continuance commitment (p. 505). However, it seems that the two mechanisms are very closely linked. Sacrifice involves the members giving up something as a price of membership in the group. Often in intramurals, this involves a sacrifice of time away from other friends or events, or perhaps away from studying. In a group, one also sacrifices a certain amount of his own individuality. The purpose is not, however, to make the individual give these things up just so that they are available, but rather because organizations that demand certain sacrifices survive longer. In the eyes of both the group, and the individual, sacrifice for a cause, makes that cause more sacred, and aids in commitment.

The mechanism of investment actually involves taking the profits gained through the sacrifice, and investing it in the group. In other words, the time and energy gained from

sacrificing other activities are then committed to the group. It becomes, as stated before, a matter of economics, where time and energy are the resources with which one buys a stake in the organization. Therefore, once someone has made an investment of his resources in an organization, he will be much more likely to make sure that his investment was worthwhile, and will want the group to be a success. At the same time, he would consider things very carefully before he would consider leaving the group, since he has invested so much. This would then ensure his continued commitment and participation. This would also imply that the longer an individual was connected with a group, the greater his investment, and the less the chance of his withdrawing. An example of how investment can affect the intramural participation rates, is in the idea of tradition. Homans (1969) states that recurrences in social behaviour are called customs or traditions, and these can be relied on as expected behaviour when planning for the future (p. 7). Traditions, then, are a form of time and energy investment, and can be instrumental in committing individuals to participation. At the University of Alberta for example, the Dentistry School and the Medical School units have a tradition of rivalry that leads to a type of competition which has slightly more at stake than the game itself. This kind of tradition strengthens the commitment to the group, and increases intramural participation. However, a tradition of participation, not necessarily against a particular rival, can also lead to increased commitment.

If continuance commitment is reliant upon social economics, as Kanter (1968) feels, then the social rewards that are available will be an influencing factor in retaining members in a group. This concept has many proponents. Homans (1961) believes that all human social behaviour is a function of the pay-off it creates. Men, like the animals, are conditioned by reinforcement so that, if an individual is receiving a low rate of reinforcement, he will have a low rate of emission of the activity (p. 18). Therefore, if a group member is participating in intramurals, and he feels no reward for his participation, then he will not likely continue. The rewards or profits which individuals can incur from intramural participation are mainly social in nature (aside from a trophy or a bar), and include social approval from other members, status within and outside the group, increased popularity and number of friends, and support for one's values and self-concepts. Most of these social reward processes involve the process of social exchange--an activity is performed for the group, and the group returns with social rewards. Blau (1964) feels that:

. . . social approval is of great significance, it constitutes an important social reward and the basic source of social influence . . . status and esteem are more specific aspects of social approval (p. 62).

He also feels that friendships or ". . . personal attraction is the source of support for an individual's opinions and judgments, his values and self-concepts" (p. 85). Therefore, in effect, the rewards of friendship and social approval can provide most of the social support needed to ensure continued

participation. As the magnitude and frequency of reinforcement increases, performance in the approved activity will increase also, provided the reinforcement is coming from a trusted source.

Deutsch and Krauss (1965) state that the more people like one another, the surer they are to reward the acts of others with approval. If this is true, then friendship and approval also come hand in hand.

When these ideas are applied to the intramural program, it becomes evident that social rewards play a definite role in maintaining or increasing participation, and ensuring continuance commitment. Since friendship and approval imply meaningful social interaction with members of the group, then immediately one can see that the small group will be much more able to provide the necessary reinforcements to ensure participation. In the large groups, so many of the members are unaware of what other members are doing or achieving, that they could not support a participant. Since Deutsch and Krauss (1965) state that reward is surer among friends, it is obvious that the small group where friendship bonds are more easily made, is the more ideal situation. In the Dentistry, Law, and many other small group units, especially those formed along friendship and community of interest lines, they will be more successful at committing their members to participate because of the increased availability of social rewards. In the larger units, the task will be much more difficult. Coleman (1964) found that in large groups, a small number of

people monopolize all of the rewards.

It appears that there is a slowly decreasing percentage participation among the fraternities. This however, is not because they are not a small or interest group, but in the 1970's there has been a general trend toward disintegration of fraternities because, to many they represent the formal remains of an age of phoniness and unreality. Members are finding that the costs socially, of belonging to a fraternity are greater than the profits, since today, a fraternity member is immediately branded by his peers. The trend is toward the informal voluntary associations created around groups of interest, instead of formal fraternities.

The fact that continuance commitment is generated by the intramural units is shown in Table 7. The figures show that the percentage participation increases from first year, until third year, where it is the highest. In fourth year the rates drop a little, but remain higher than in first and second years. The members of the university seem to become more committed to intramurals the longer they are associated with it. This is a general trend across the whole university, but when the individual units are studied in Table 6, more valuable information is provided. The general trend is for fraternities to increase their participation over the years of enrolment. Other smaller, more cohesive units such as Agriculture, Medicine, Dentistry, and Law, also show an increase in participation from year one to year three. On the other hand, the residences show a downward trend in

participation, the longer the members of the group are at the university, as does the Arts and Science unit. Education shows a decrease from first to second year, but increases again in third year which is against the trend, but all of these figures are very low, indicating lack of commitment in all years. This data is supported by Barker and Gump (1964) who found that seniors in small schools reported more extra-curricular activities than the seniors in large schools by a ratio of over 2:1 (p.71). Continuance commitment is much easier to get in the small group situation.

It would seem that an intramural sports situation would be easier than other situations to gain continuance commitment since athletic prowess of any kind is held in very high stead. As a result, one would expect that the social rewards associated with intramural sportsmen would be relatively great. Coleman (1961) found that on a popularity scale in the high schools, the athlete far outdistanced the scholars in popularity with both boys and girls (p. 147). Students who were good in athletics received friendship, popularity, status, and membership in the leading crowd (p. 148). With these kinds of social rewards, continued participation in sport is assured. Within any school-age group, sport participation has this high regard, so as a result, members who participate are rewarded, and remain committed to the group.

Backman and Secord (1968) believe that athletic victory, as well as participation, brings glory and the subsequent rewards of increased status (p. 64). From this, one

would assume that winners in the program would as a result have greater subsequent participation because of the hope for future rewards for belonging to a winning team. The Dentistry unit, for example has both high participation and high levels of success, as seen by Table 10. Since the group is small and communication between members is good, the news of success, and the status that is associated with it, spreads fast. The status and rewards come then, not only from the actual participants, but from the whole group of people who are even remotely involved. This occurs in a unit such as Dentistry because the smallness and the cohesiveness allows all members of the group to feel the warmth of success, especially when families of participants can enjoy the status also, as part of the whole community.

Social rewards can also be expected to be greater when individuals participate with other members of the group. Table 9 shows that in all cases team sports had much greater numbers of participants than did individual sports. This, it may be argued, is natural since more people must be involved merely to make up a team to enter. However, in many cases, the participation figures are much greater than the multiple of the number needed to make a team. MacLean (1969) found this importance of playing with the group, since 88% of the participants in her study stated that their "friends" were participants also (p. 25).

At the same time Table 9 shows that football and hockey attract by far the greatest number of participants.

Football and hockey are considered "manly" sports, the "in thing" to play in sports. Since they are also the two professional sports most publicized in Canada, they attract many more fans or admirers. As a result, participation in these two sports especially would bring much more status and popularity both inside the group, and outside it. These are the most heavily contested and fiercely challenged of any of the intramural sports.

Continuance commitment therefore is seen as one of the most important types of commitment, especially in the intramural program. If a group cannot gain the commitment of members to remain as participants, then the group loses its function. It is seen to be a result of the social reward structure, and availability of rewards within the group, and can be maintained by sacrificing and investing time and energy into the socially rewarding group. As with all other variables commitment seems strongest in small groups, especially when there is a high community of interest.

The discussions with respect to unit size that have been undertaken in this chapter have outlined many important qualities which intramural units should have in order to maximize participation. First, and most important of all, it appears that participation is greatest under all circumstances when the unit membership is kept small. This participation however will be enhanced if the small group is formed from people who have a common bond, a community of interests, or a sense of community. Nonetheless, if this group is also

interacting regularly in a small geographical community, participation should increase. Lastly, it is felt that when commitment of all three types is available, enhanced by tradition, cohesiveness, and available social rewards, participation will be maximized.

Mr. Doug Dodd, Recreation Co-ordinator at the University of Guelph summarized the situation well in describing intramurals at his school.

. . . the greatest participation comes from units which already have a fair degree of cohesion and tradition, ie. senior years, and smaller groups that spend a lot of time together academically and socially. . .

This is also characteristic of the University of Alberta.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The purpose of this study was to develop a conceptual scheme to aid in the understanding of intramural participation. Since maximizing participation is the aim of most intramural programs, it was felt that there must be firstly, an understanding of participation itself. Once a scheme is developed, then those factors that are considered to be the most important ones in determining participation, can be applied to various programs in order to find the sources of and solutions to problems.

Records from the University of Alberta intramural sports program were the main source of sample data information. The study focused particularly on the academic year 1970-1971. Other universities were contacted in order to see if the observed trends at the University of Alberta were also present in the other programs.

Certain general trends were observed in all of the universities studied. The first of these is in relation to the size of the university and its apparent effects on participation in an intramural program. In general, the smaller universities have a much greater percentage participation than the large universities, where the participation rates were relatively low. It cannot be said, however, that as the university size increases, percentage participation

decreases, for results do not indicate a true negatively accelerating curve. Up to a certain level of university enrolment, the increases in numbers in fact are often a benefit to the program, since there are more people involved, allowing for a broader variety of program, and better competition. Nevertheless, results from this study cannot presume to show at what enrolment the increase in numbers begins to negatively affect intramural participation. Although enrolments of approximately 10,000 seem to be optimum, many varied factors affect intramural involvement rates.

The second general trend is in the relation to the size of the individual intramural units and their effect on percentage participation within the unit. It appears that smaller units have a greater percentage of their members actively involved in the program than do the larger units. Reference to the Dentistry unit and the Arts and Science unit bears witness to this fact. Once again, the relationship of unit size to participation does not produce a true negatively accelerating curve. It seems however, that units of greater than 350 members, generally have poorer representation in the program. Up to this number, participation rates are much higher, but varied. This is due to other factors, related to unit size, that also affect participation within the unit. These factors include the concept of community, and the three kinds of commitment--control, cohesion, and continuance.

The former affects participation in two ways. Firstly, it appears that units which are formed along the

lines of common interests or what is called a community of interest, will often be much higher than groups which are arbitrarily set. Voluntary associations usually have a much higher degree of mutual interdependence, and more meaningful relationships than arbitrary ones. This appears to be of great benefit to a group's intramural participation.

Secondly, units which have closer geographical community will because of the resulting high interaction between members, have a greater participation than those whose physical boundaries are almost unlimited.

Participation rates are also strongly related to unit size through the factor of commitment. Three kinds of commitment are much easier to obtain in the small rather than the large intramural units. Continuance commitment, which is highly dependent on tradition and social rewards, is stronger in the small unit whose structure is such that social rewards are easily available. Cohesion commitment, which is dependent on strong intermember affectional ties, resistant to outside destructive forces, is probably the most important of these two kinds. It once again, is much easier to develop the necessary cohesive bonds in small face to face groups. Control commitment somewhat less important with respect to the voluntarily chosen intramural units, can be stronger in small groups than in the unwieldy larger units (although, the kind of normative controls that schools such as Medicine and Dentistry have on members is important).

Therefore it is evident that in the organization of

intramurals, the size and the criteria for unit formation are extremely important in determining participation rates. Although the intramural program cannot control the size of the university, the method of formation of units can be planned to a great extent. If the program allows for the units to be based on small units with a high community of interest, a small geographical community, with high cohesion, social rewards, and at least a minimum of social control, participation rates will be enhanced.

The present study has shown that, given the provisos that the intramural director and the unit managers' ability and interest are sufficiently high, that the university has some tradition of intramurals, and that the budgeting and facilities are adequate, the preceding variables are of significant importance in determining participation.

The following chart (Figure 13) provides the developed conceptual scheme for an understanding of participation in intramurals. These are based on the findings of this study in relation to university size and unit size. The numbers one through four indicate an increasing participation rate. From the chart it can be seen that maximum participation can be attained when the intramural unit has high levels of both cohesion and continuance commitment and when the unit itself is formed of people with a high community of interest interacting frequently in a small geographical community. These characteristics are most easily obtained in a small unit in the smaller university.

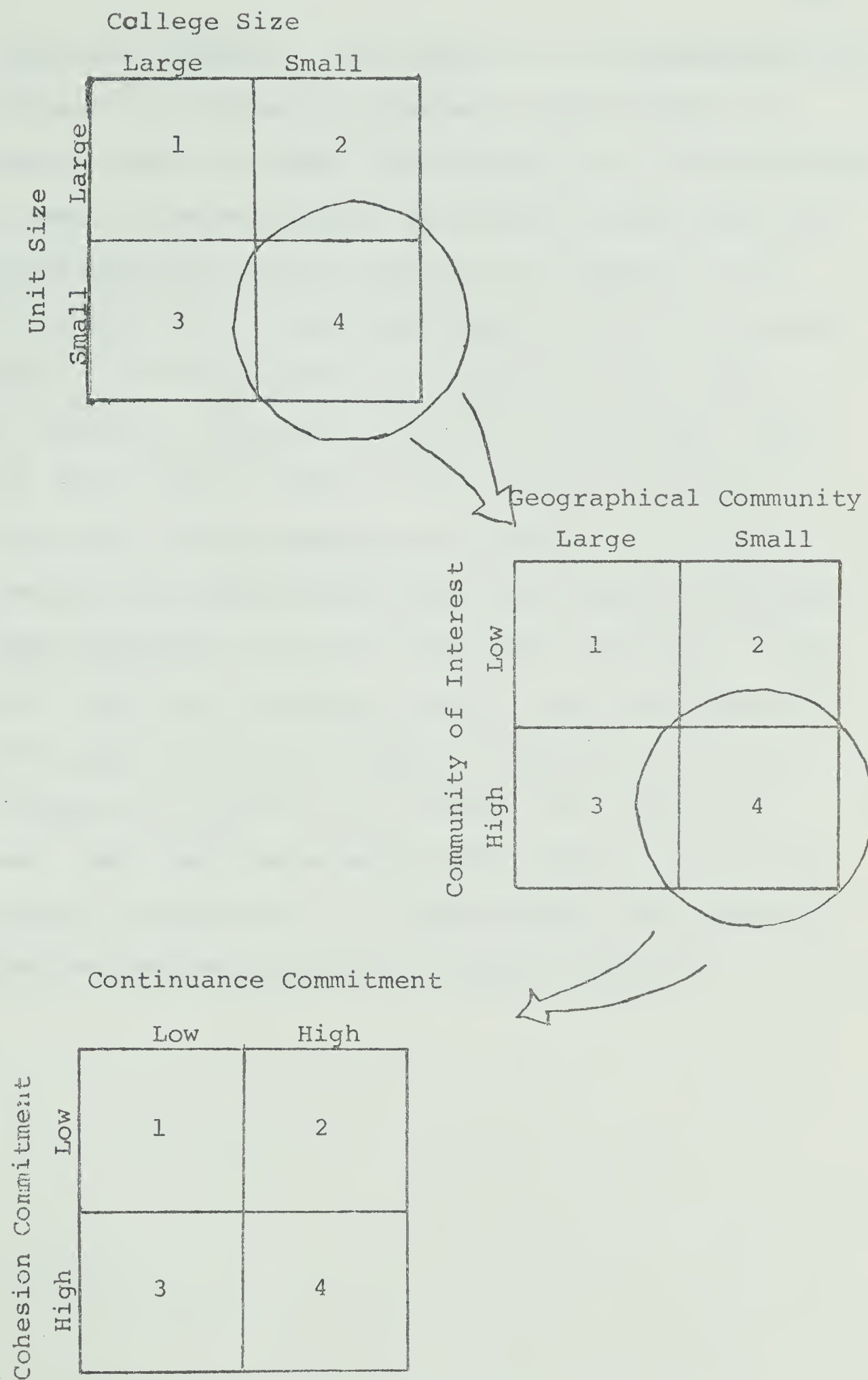


FIGURE 13 THE DEVELOPED CONCEPTUAL SCHEME FOR UNDERSTANDING INTRAMURAL PARTICIPATION

From the results of this study, it is recommended that at the University of Alberta, intramural units should be broken down in order to combat the anonymity of the university. Units of common interest groups, not huge faculties such as the Arts and Science faculty, should be the basis of unit formation. This is not to say that faculty units per se are not suitable to be represented in intramurals, for, the Dentistry, Medicine, and Law units are faculty based. However, this should only be done if the faculty represents a small group with a high community of interest. The Intramural Director and Council should push for the disintegration of the huge impersonal units and encourage interested groups to organize their own intramural units. It is believed that this is the only basis for intramural formation that will allow intramurals to thrive in a society that definitely needs them. The trend has started here, and at some of the other Canadian universities. In these cases, this method of unit formation has been successful without exception.

CHAPTER VI

EPILOGUE

Recommendations for Future Research

- 1) A questionnaire survey should be done in order to find why people in the different units feel they participate or do not participate. A cross-unit comparison could be made on this basis.
- 2) A study should look at the women's program in an attempt to find participation problems that may be specific to the women's program.
- 3) A study should look into the effects of having compulsory physical education in first year and the resultant effect on the intramural program.
- 4) A study of the success of the co-recreational program is necessary to find out the motivation for participation, and how participation could be improved.
- 5) A study could investigate the desirability and feasibility of having intramurals divided into a competitive and a recreational league, as at other universities, for those who want to play but do not want competition for points, bars, and trophies.
- 6) A comparative study could look at the difference between reasons for participation in males and females.

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